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ABSTRACT

This draft document presents an analysis of all major educational reform proposals before the Illinois General Assembly, assessing the costs of implementation and what benefits might be expected for the funding levels contained in the proposals themselves. The 18 areas examined are (1) student testing; (2) student retention/remediation; (3) dropout reduction; (4) curriculum and academic standards; (5) instructional mandates; (6) innovative service delivery; (7) compulsory attendance ages; (8) early childhood education; (9) lengthened school day/year; (10) teacher training and certification; (11) teacher evaluation; (12) scholarships, internships and recruiting; (13) staff development; (14) administrator training, certification and duties; (15) salaries and performance pay; (16) school district reorganization; (17) school-business relations; and (18) public information and public relations. Looking at these areas, the paper describes the range of suggestions contained in the various packages of reform proposals, reviews research on the effects of similar reforms in other States, examines cost estimates contained in various reports, and suggests what actual implementation costs are likely to be and, therefore, what additional resources will be required. For each reform area, costs are estimated for low, medium, and high levels of implementation. It is hypothesized that if all described reforms were to be enacted at the lowest level of implementation, Statewide additional costs would be $732.18 million. It is emphasized that this document is a draft report. Therefore, it does not contain any recommendations. However, it does conclude that: (1) the costs of current proposed reforms, even at the lowest implementation levels, far exceed the new resources being proposed to fund reform efforts; (2) the General Assembly must determine, in the allocation process, which of a range of implementation levels will be enacted; and (3) proposals for only minimal increases in expenditures are unlikely to produce significant changes in the ways public schools currently

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WHAT ARE WE WILLING TO PAY FOR REFORM?

An Analysis of the Costs of Educational Reform in Illinois

Educational Reform has been a priority item on the legislative agenda in Illinois this year. Following a spate of national reports, governmental and non-governmental groups have been setting forth packages of reform proposals during the past year. One thing unites these diverse reports: there has been little serious analysis of the costs of implementing these proposals and what benefits might be expected for the funding levels contained in the proposals themselves.

This draft document presents an analysis of all major proposals currently before the Illinois General Assembly. Looking at 18 discrete arenas, it describes the range of suggestions contained in the various packages, presents background research into the effects of similar reforms in other states, examines cost estimates contained in the various reports, and suggests what actual implementation costs are likely to be, and therefore what additional resources will be required. In a separate chapter, major reforms in other states are reviewed. For each reform arena, costs are estimated for low, medium, and high levels of implementation. If all described reforms were to be enacted at the lowest level of implementation, statewide additional costs would be $732.18 million.

It must be emphasized that this document is a draft report. It contains no recommendations about which reforms ought, or ought not, be enacted. Such recommendations will be contained in the Panel's final report. This draft is put forward to present information in an arena which has been largely neglected to date. But we do not pretend that the information contained in this report is final and definitive. The assumptions behind many of the reform packages are not clearly spelled out. In some cases, the assumptions exist, but have not been made explicit. In other cases, the advocates may not have examined critically the implications of their own proposals. In still other cases, implementation levels will be arbitrarily limited by allocation restrictions. To make cost estimates, we were forced to make decisions about these assumptions. One of the purposes of this draft is to make explicit those underlying assumptions which are critical to both implementation and cost analysis. Only in this way will accurate cost estimates for projected legislation be available.

An accurate analysis of costs has also been made more difficult by the process of political packaging of reform proposals. Many reforms are being advocated on the basis of funding for pilot projects. While it makes good sense to begin new programs on a pilot basis, this can often be a "camel's nose" device, in which a small initial allocation might, with full implementation, completely occupy the "tent" of educational resources if the pilot is successful. Yet rarely are the full costs explained when the pilots are proposed. Thus, in following years, the legislature is faced with either killing a successful program or allowing it to siphon away resources already committed to other projects. We believe this to be an unsound approach to major change in public education. Therefore, this draft contains the full implementation costs of all reforms proposed as pilot projects.

Similarly, a number of proposals have been presented as "phase-ins." Frequently, only the first year costs are discussed in introducing these ideas, and resources are projected only to cover the first year costs. In a number of other states, implementation delays have been quite common, due to inadequate funding, particularly in the second or third years of reform. While a phase-in approach may be programmatically necessary, and mention of only one year's costs politically advantageous, it presents the spectre of single year programs left unfunded in the second year, 1986, which is an election year. Educational Reform cannot be thought of as a one year project. Therefore, we present full implementation costs for phase-in programs, believing that the commitment for full funding must be included in the authorizing legislation, along with the envisioned resources to provide the continuing funding, or these programs will not survive to maturity.

IMPLICATIONS

1. The costs of current proposed reforms, even at the lowest implementation levels, far exceed the new resources being proposed to fund reform efforts. Even if larger resources become available, choices must be made, particularly among the more expensive items. The educational community, parents, and civic groups must choose the three or four big ticket items which are most likely to be effective in improving the public education provided in the state's schools. The General Assembly will be forced to make such choices, and those interested in the public schools should be united to give their legislators guidance in this area.

2. The current set of proposals have a wide range of implementation levels. The General Assembly will be forced to determine, in the allocation process, what level of implementation will be enacted. Citizens groups and the educational community must choose which level of implementation should be enacted if the proposed reform is to provide the benefits envisioned. In educational reform, it is not always the case that "half a loaf is better than none." The potential benefits of a fully implemented program may disappear at lower levels of funding. For example, much publicity has been given to recent reports on the value of early childhood education, citing a seven to one return on expenditures. This favorable return is based on research involving the Perry Preschool Project in Ypsilanti, whose current annual dollar equivalent expenditures would be $6,800 per student. Virtually none of the current proposals in early childhood education envision that level of expenditure, yet it is not clear that seven to one dollar savings can be expected from lower expenditure levels. Potential benefits are tied to levels of implementation, and the benefits of full implementation should not be used to sell acceptance of partial implementation. Citizens groups and the education community must decide which implementation levels are necessary for reforms to be effective.

3. Perhaps most important, citizens, educators, and legislators must decide what level of funding is necessary to implement any significant reforms. Other states in which significant reforms have been enacted have also provided significant state resources to undergird those reforms. In most other states, state support of the costs of public education has steadily risen, and only a few states provide less than 50% of the costs of the public schools. In Illinois, state support for education has steadily fallen, both in dollars per student (when adjusted for inflation) and in the proportional share borne by the state (down from 48% in 1976 to about 39% currently). In California, education spending rose by $1.8 billion over two years; Ilinois has only about a third as many students, so a comparable increase would be at least $600 million over present total state expenditures. Proposals for only minimal increases in expenditures are unlikely to produce significant changes in the ways public schools currently operate and perform.

DANGERS

There are two major dangers in the current debate about educational reform. The first is that the General Assembly will mandate a number of new reforms without providing the funds to enact those reforms at the local level. Last year, one-third of all school districts entered the school year with projected deficits. Most school districts are already fully utilizing all available local fiscal resources, and as the state has reduced its share of the costs of education, a larger and larger burden has been put upon local revenues. It is unrealistic to think that major educational reforms will be enacted without additional state funds.

More importantly, current proposed appropriations are likely to provide only enough funds for cosmetic changes. There is a great danger for public education in this situation. If only cosmetic changes are enacted under the guise of educational reform, legislators will be able to claim credit for helping the schools when no real help has been provided. More importantly, they may then hold the schools accountable for higher performance, without having provided the means to meet those higher expectations. If, as should then be expected, no significant change were to occur, the stage is set for further state neglect of public education, the pattern evident since 1976.

SUMMARY OF ADDITIONAL COSTS
for
SCHOOL REFORM PROPOSALS

	Implementation Level	
	Low Cost	High Cost
	(in millions)	
BIG TICKET ARENAS (Low Cost over $50 million)		
Remediation after Testing	$137.3	$181.0
Promotion/Retention re Testing	255.0	255.0
Lengthen School Day/Year	260.3	1,440.0

POTENTIALLY BIG TICKET ARENAS (Medium Cost at $50 million or High Cost over $100 million)

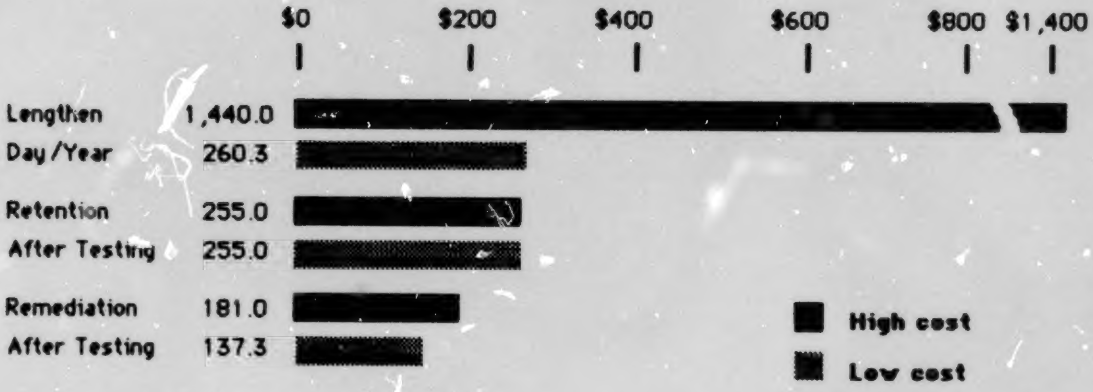
	Medium	High
Early Childhood, Full day kdgn.	49.8	587.6
Teacher Compensation	227.0	860.9
Innovative Service Delivery (Venture Grants, Building Councils)	51.5	239.1
Teacher Training, Certification (Require ACT score of 19+)		713.0
School District Reorganization (Salary equalization for elementary districts)		196.3

LOW COST ARENAS

	Low Cost	High Cost
Student Testing	3.9	27.9
Programs for Dropout Reduction	21.6	31.5
Curriculum & Academic Standards (* Plus one-time expenditure: $32.0)	0.6	11.3*
Instructional Mandates	9.8	28.4
Compulsory Attendance	3.0	16.5
Personnel Evaluation	3.3	16.0
Scholarships & Internships	0.4	3.2
Staff Development	0.14	23.3
Admin. T'ng, Certif, & Duties	0.2	3.7
School-Business Relations	0.0	19.6
Public Relations	0.04	43.4

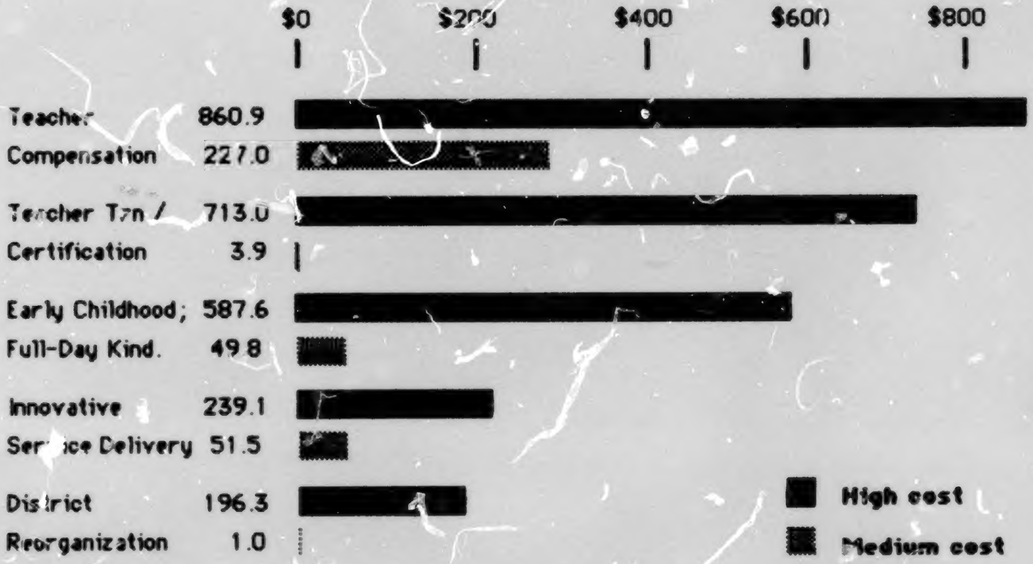
Big Ticket Arenas

(Low Cost Over $50 Million)



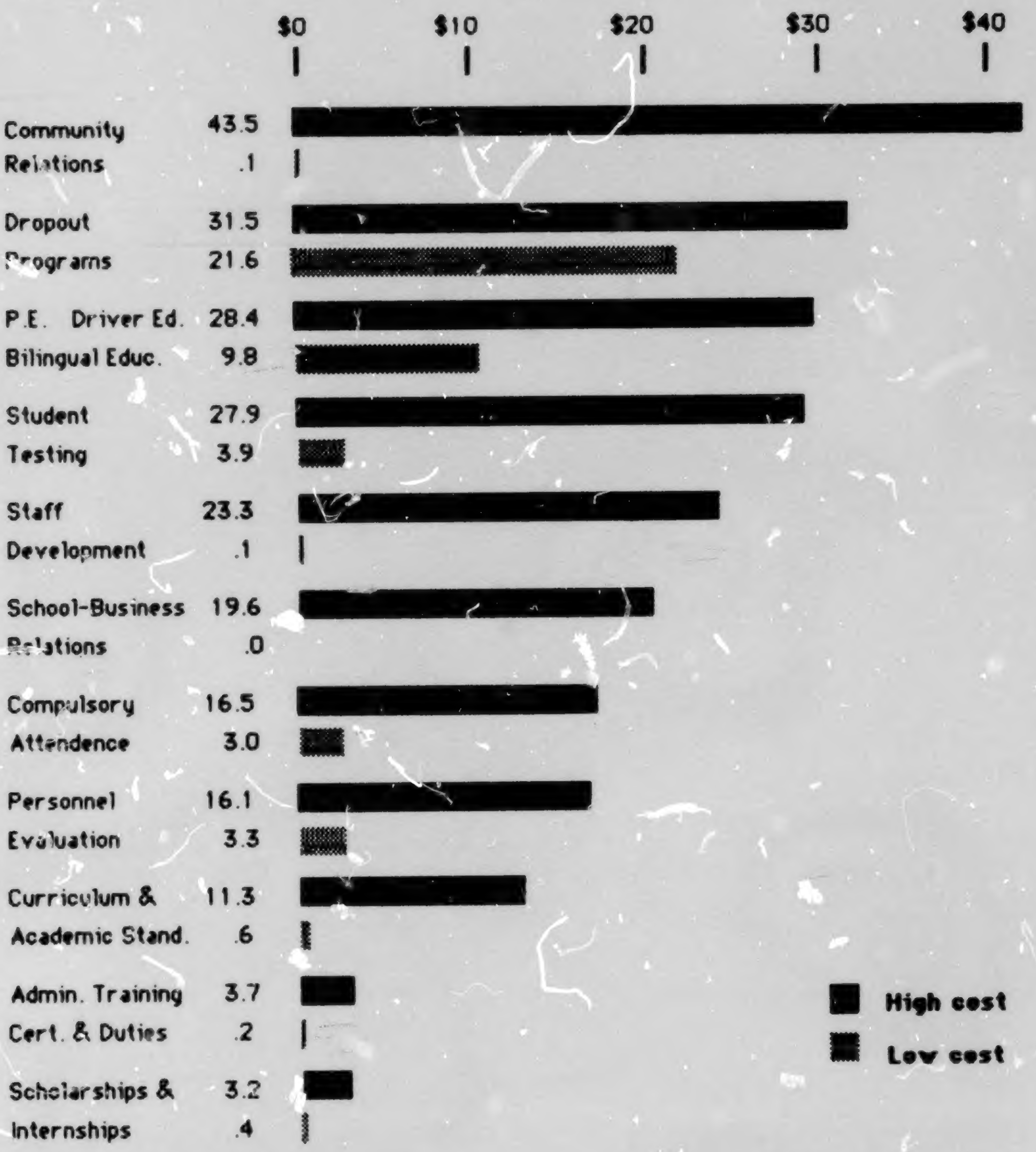
Potentially Big Ticket Arenas

(Median Cost Over $50 Million or
High Cost Over $100 Million)



Low Cost Arenas

(High Cost Under $50 Million)



SUMMARY OF BEST COST ESTIMATES
for
MAJOR SCHOOL REFORM PROPOSALS

	ILLIN PROJCT	ILLIN COMMSN	ISBE	CTU	GOVERNOR
BIG TICKET ARENAS					
Remediation re Tests	$ 0.0	$181.0	$ 0.0	$181.0	$ 38.5
Retention re Testing	0.0	255.0	0.0	0.0	255.0
Lengthen Day/Year	2.5	0.5	492.0	0.5	0.0
POTENTIALLY BIG TICKET ARENAS					
Early Childhood	0.0	206.8	61.0	206.8	13.0
Teacher Compensation	391.1	860.9	860.9	860.9	21.0
Innovative Serv Delvy	239.1	1.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
Teacher Tng/Certifictn	713.0	1.1	0.0	3.9	1.1
District Reorganiztn	196.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0
LOW COST ARENAS					
Student Testing	11.3	11.3	19.3	11.3	0.1
Dropout Reduction	0.0	21.5	31.5	21.5	13.2
Curriculum & Stand'ds	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	32.0
Instructl Mandates	2.0	- 3.8	2.0	0.0	0.0
Compulsory Attend	0.0	0.0	6.2	0.0	0.0
Personnel Eval	5.3	0.0	3.3	0.0	0.0
Scholarships/Interns	1.0	1.1	0.4	3.2	0.0
Staff Development	0.1	23.3	23.3	2.5	13.2
Admin Tng/Certiftn	0.3	3.7	0.2	0.1	0.6
School-Business Rel	19.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0
Public Info/Relatns	43.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.8
TOTAL	$1,234.9	1,563.6	1,500.1	1,291.7	393.5
PUBLISHED ESTIMATES	$265.4	544.4	n.a.	n.a.	136.6

COST ESTIMATE NOTES

Illinois Project estimates include full implementation of innovative service delivery proposals, ACT scores of 19 for admission to teacher training, and leveling up of salaries in elementary districts for proposed consolidation.

Illinois Commision estimates include preschool for disadvantaged children and full-day kindergarten.

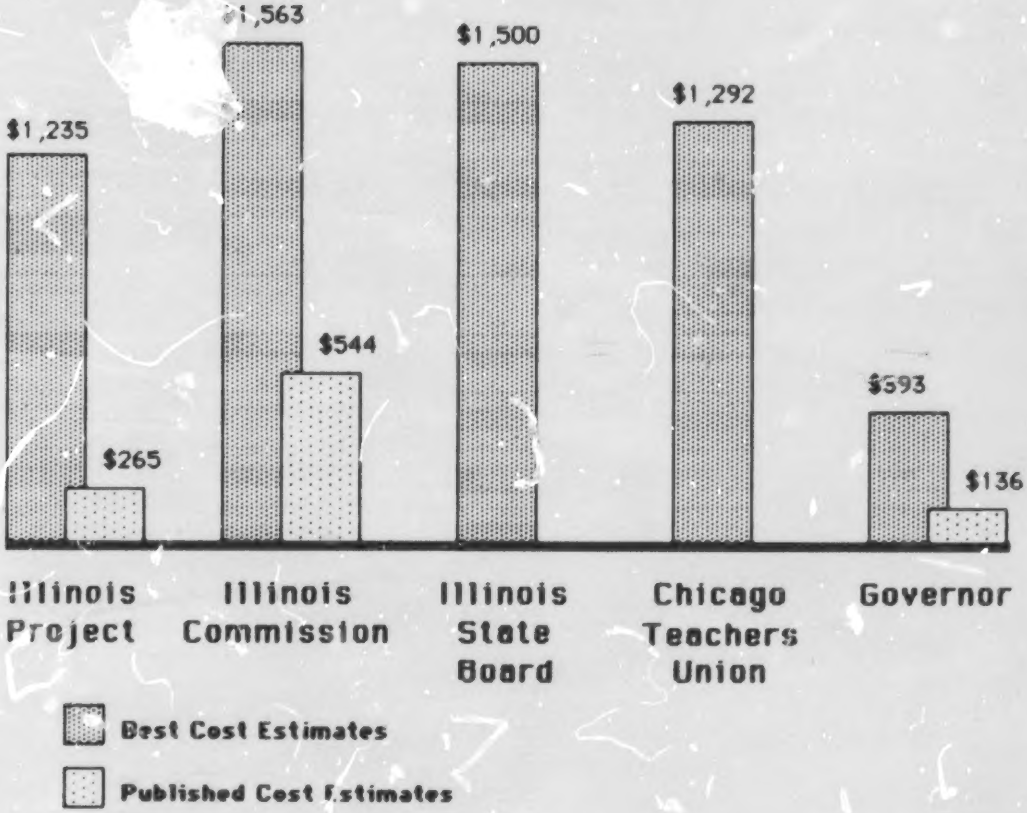
The CTU, ISBE, and Illinois Commission estimates assume equal percentage salary increments for all certificated personnel.

ISBE estimates contain the proposal for a seven hour minimum school day, and full cost implementation of birth-to-three programs. Retention cost estimates assume that an additional 10 percent of Illinois' students would be retained under new promotion standards.

Published cost estimates for Illinois Commission are third year (full implementation) figures, and for the Governor's program are first year figures. Former State Superintendent Donald Gill proposed $134 million for refrom, and the current ISBE proposal is $91.6 million, but both packages differ from the one estimated above.

Best Cost Estimates of Major School Reform Proposals

(in millions)



I. SUMMARY OF COST ESTIMATES

SUMMARY OF
EDUCATIONAL REFORM COST ESTIMATES

A. STUDENT ACCOUNTABILITY

1. STUDENT TESTING AND ASSIGNMENT

Proposal: Test students at 3rd, 6th, 8th, and 10th grades; use tests as basis for retention.

Issues: Norm referenced tests (in use now) distribute students in pre-established pattern; not to show skills learned;
Must use criterion referenced tests; but these must match curriculum;
Other reforms propose local options for learning objectives, meaning no single test could match all the diverse district goals!

Costs: (in millions)

	Low Cost	Mid Cost	High Cost
Chicago	$ 0.729	$ 2.8	$ 8.0
Statewide	3.9	19.3	27.9

Low Costs = Governor's proposal: No test costs, $78,000 for costs of reporting to state, and $2.9 million for report card to local communities.

Mid Costs = Costs of developing Criterion Referenced tests.

High Costs = Costs of administering common statewide Criterion Referenced tests under state proctorship.

2. STUDENT RETENTION & REMEDIAL SERVICES

Proposal: Provide Remediation and/or Retention for students more than one year behind grade level on tests at 3rd, 6th, and 8th grades.

Issues: Match between Criterion Referenced tests and curriculum in use (learning objectives).
Extent of proposal's impact: Half of Chicago's current 9th graders would have been retained (some 15,000 for one of three grades in one system)

Costs:

Remedial Services	Low Cost	Mid Cost	High Cost
Chicago	$ 0.0	$ 45.3	$ 61.3
Statewide	0.0	137.3	181.0

Retention (additional years requires additional teachers: 15,000 = 500):

Statewide	$ 255.0		$ 382.5

Low Costs = Assumes simply spreading current remedial services around differently, but retention of even 10% of tested students would require additional teachers.

Mid Costs = Pennsylvania Plan for remedial services after similar testing policy.

High Costs = 30% of all tested students require remediation, less those already receiving them; retention at 15%.

3. DROPOUT REDUCTION

Proposals: Eliminate Dropouts by raising mandatory attendance to age 18 (makes Dropouts into Truants) Various measures to provide remedial programs or alternative programs, including counselling and school-work options.

Costs:

	Low Cost	Mid Cost	High Cost
Chicago	$ 13.2	$ 16.9	$ 18.7
Statewide	21.6	25.8	31.5

Low Costs = Chicago Plan for all high schools, including 13 reentry centers for dropouts, 30 job-placement centers, and reducing the student:counselor ratio from 450:1 to 300:1.

Mid Costs = Florida plan of using one period of h.s. teacher's day for counselling 30 kids; requires 766 extra teachers.

High Costs = Ill. Comm. programs for "At Risk" Students, 9th & 10th grades plus State Board's Truant Alternatives Programs, including alternative schools; Extent: 115,000 Dropout Prone students statewide; 58,000 in 9th & 10th grade group.

4. CURRICULUM AND ACADEMIC STANDARDS

Proposals: Two different approaches: tougher course requirements vs. learning outcomes, which would require a testing program for assessment. Two ways to increase course requirements also exist: increase state mandates for graduation or increase college entrance requirements. Curriculum changes are generally inexpensive.

Costs:

	Low Cost	Mid Cost	High Cost	Governor's one time
Chicago	$ 0.1	$ 0.96	$ 1.5	$ 8.0
Statewide	0.6	3.76	11.3	32.0

Low Costs = One time retraining costs to provide courses to meet IBHE entrance requirements.

Medium & High Costs = Estimated cost of Illinois Commission recommendations; high cost is for statewide standardized achievement tests (also included in Testing section).

B. EDUCATIONAL METHODS

5. INSTRUCTIONAL MANDATES

Proposals: Ill. Project recommends eliminating all mandates except Special Education. Other proposals would eliminate two years of Physical Education and/or Driver's Education. Eliminating Physical Education would add to costs, because students would then be in classes with lower teacher-student ratios. Driver's Ed elimination would save money.

Issue: Eliminating mandates would leave the state in danger of losing federal funds or having to provide demandated services anyway, under federal guidelines, in some instances. ISBE proposed expanded language resource programs under Resource Cost Model proposals.

Costs:

	Low Cost	Mid Cost	High Cost
Chicago	$ 0.276	$ -1.5	
Statewide	2.6	2.1	
Costs of Transitional Programs for LEP students:			
Chicago	3.4	9.8	$ 10.1
Statewide	7.2	25.6	26.3

Demandate Low Costs = athletes exempted, PE elective; 10% opt out of Driver's Ed.
Medium Costs = all take one less year PE; 20 - 40% opt out of Driver's Ed.

Transitional Low Costs = assumes lightly monitored program, 50% LEP students served.
Medium Costs = tight monitoring, all LEP served, 50% in pull-out, only in high configuration.
High Costs = light monitoring, in low frequency configuration.

6. INNOVATIVE DELIVERY OF EDUCATIONAL DELIVERY SERVICES

Proposals: Everything from motivational programs (e.g., statewide academic olympics) to Expanded Advanced Placement testing and programs;
Corporate Voluntaristic Programs (Boston Compact, Adopt-a-school);
Illinois Venture Grant Program (Ill State U), grants for innovation @ average of $150 per pupil (range equity-based from $50 to $250)
School Building Councils given control over some programs and local funds; Designs for Change proposes combining with Venture Grant-like program for Chicago.
Merit School Grants to reward the best schools

Issue: It is not clear how merit grants would adjust for differing quality of incoming students. Without some such adjustment, it appears the merit grants would just funnel money to suburban schools.

Costs:

	Low Cost	Mid Cost	High Cost
Chicago	$ 0.276	$ 43.0	$ 69.2
Statewide	1.1	51.5	239.1

Low Costs = Ill. Ed. Venture Fund to sponsor innovation, 8-10 pilot projects, funding of regional council initiatives, and establishment of a Business Dept at ISBE.
Mid Costs = Building Improvement Councils @ $100 per student in Chicago and seven other urban school districts.
High Costs = Full implementation for Advanced Placement ($7.4 million), Illinois Venture Grant ($125 million), School Building Councils ($90 million, for all urban districts), and Ed. Privitization Act ($8 million, for $8,000 planning grants to all school districts).

C. STUDENT ATTENDANCE

7. COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE

Proposals: Change current ages (7 - 16 years of age):
State Board, upwards to age 18.
Berman-Mulcahey, State reimbursement for full-day Kindergarten (1.0 weighting).

Costs:

	Low Cost	Mid Cost	High Cost
Chicago	$ 1.7	$ 3.4	$ 9.0
Statewide	3.0	6.2	16.5

Low Costs = Assumes newly retained will use optional and/or part-time programs.
Mid Costs = Attendence up 1% (4,500), 50% in optional prog.
High Costs = Attendence up 1.5% (6,750), all in regular prog.

8. EARLY CHILDHOOD REFORMS

Proposals: Two major suggestions have been made:
- Expand full-day kindergarten
- Establish Preschooling services, perhaps for:
  - 4 year olds (half-day)
  - 3 year olds (half-day)
  - 0 - 3 year olds (in home services, 90 minutes, up to three times per week.

Issue: Avoiding transferring day care funds from current allocations and relabelling them as additional "education funds".

Costs:

	Low Cost	Mid Cost	High Cost	Tribune
Chicago	$ 3.25	$ 30.0	$ 40.1	$360.7
Statewide	13.0	49.8	108.5	587.6

Low Cost = Governor's proposed allocation for Project TRAIN, funds additional slots not previously existing in preschools.
Medium Cost = Ill. Comm.'s funding of full-day kdg, assuming Chicago plus 20% of other districts would opt to implement this reform.
High Cost = Ill. Comm. proposal expanded to include preschool for 3 & 4 year olds, assuming continuation of current day care funding in other budget areas.
Tribune Program = For full implementation of Home Start, preschool, and full day kdg, only for disadvantaged children.

9. LENGTHEN SCHOOL DAY/YEAR

Proposals: Lengthen the current day (5.5 hours) or year (176 days) to put more time on task for learning. Ill Comm (Berman) & Ill Proj (Bakalis) recommend study, but provided no implementation estimates.

Costs:

	Low/Low	Low Cost	Mid Cost	High Cost
Chicago	$ 9.6	$ 66.7	$ 133.1	$ 366.0
Statewide	9.6	260.3	491.8	1,440.0

Low/Low Costs = Summer School in Chicago only for 32,000 students who failed two courses, at $302 per pupil.
Low Costs = Extending the school day by 30 minutes; additional salary costs.
Mid Costs = Ill. State Bd. extension by 1 hour for h.s. day, 1.5 hours to elementary school day.
High Costs = Adding 30 days to school year, as recommended by A Nation At Risk and included in Chicago's five year plan, and 1.5 hours to school day for 210 day year.

D. PERSONNEL EVALUATION

10. TEACHER TRAINING AND CERTIFICATION

Proposals: include raising teacher training standards, testing potential teachers before certification, and merging the Chicago Board of Examiners with the State Certification Board.

Issue: Raising standards for entrance into teaching is likely to cause a teacher shortage which would either require higher salaries to entice better students into teaching or lead to the watering down of required test scores, as has happened in other states.

Costs:

	Low Cost	Mid Cost	High Cost
Chicago	$ 0.0	$ 0.8	$ 167.2
Statewide	1.1	3.9	713.0

Low Costs = Costs of establishing a basic skills (only) test, statewide, for 8,000 prospective teachers, and the National Teachers Examination for 17,000 graduates. Fees would offset additional costs beyond these estimates. Merging the Chicago Board of Examiners with the State Board would realize no savings, but would simply shift costs to the state.

Medium Costs = Same costs as new teacher portion of Toledo plan for master teacher supervision on a 10:1 ratio.

High Costs = Higher ACT admission scores for teacher training institutions as suggested by Ill. Project would require 20% increases in salaries to maintain the same supply of teachers (National Bureau of Economic Research estimates), calculated on current average salaries.

11. TEACHER EVALUATION

Proposals: call for annual evaluations of established teachers and more frequent evaluation of new teachers. Several proposals add staff development plans for teachers needing improvement.

Costs:

	Low Cost	Mid Cost	High Cost
Chicago	$ 0.7	$ 1.3	$ 3.7
Statewide	3.3	6.3	16.0

Low Costs = Staff improvement at $1,000 per new teacher, $500 per experienced teacher(ISBE). Simply requiring written evaluations would merely validate existing procedures and add no new costs.
Medium Costs = Toledo type plan with master teacher to supervise 10 new or experienced teachers requiring remediation; 275 master teachers would be needed statewide.
High Costs = Citizens Schools Committees more extensive evaluation recommendation of four peer evaluations, two asst. principal evaluations, and one principal evaluation annually.

12. SCHOLARSHIPS, INTERNSHIPS, AND RECRUITMENT

Proposals: include offering scholarships to retrain current teachers into areas of shortages, to recruit persons with particular talents, or to open positions for minorities. Costs are relatively minor for any of these programs.

Costs:

	Low Cost	Mid Cost	High Cost
Chicago	$ 0.0	$ 0.0	$ 0.2
Statewide	0.4	1.1	3.2

Low Costs = full implementation of ISBE scholarship program for 70 teachers to be retrained and 90 undergraduate prospective teachers.
Medium Costs = Ill. Comm. plan for 75 retraining scholarships and 100 for prospects, plus 25 internships, at full-time substitute's salary.
High Costs = CTU's additional scholarships and internships for 10% of new hires; internships figured for one semester.

13. STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Proposals: Several different patterns of staff development are contained in the proposals. Some envision individual development plans; other suggest the establishment of staff development centers on a regional basis; "no cost" proposals suggest local districts reorganize their current efforts to be more effective.

Costs:

	Low Cost	Mid Cost	High Cost
Chicago	$ 0.03	$ 3.6	$ 4.7
Statewide	0.14	13.2	23.3

Low Cost = Regional Professional Development Planning Councils @ $2,500 per council.

Medium Cost = Governor's proposal for $10 million for regional teaching centers, $3.5 for reading inservices, plus $2 million for summer fellowships, less $2.35 million already committed to Area Gifted Centers and computer consortia. The CTU proposed an alternative of tuition reimbursement for the estimated 55% of urban teachers who currently take university work; costs are estimated at $2.5 million ($600 apiece for 24,000 personnel).

High Cost = Ill. Comm./ISBE proposal for $160 per teacher for 115,000 certificated personnel (Comm. only used [illegible] estimate of 100,000).

14. ADMINISTRATOR TRAINING, CERTIFICATION, AND DUTIES

Proposals: focus on a Principal's Academy (or Leadership Academy) to enhance administrators' skills, recertification testing, and additional in-class time for principals. Because the number of affected persons is small, costs are low.

Costs:

	Low Cost	Mid Cost	High Cost
Chicago	$ 0.03	$ 0.1	$ 0.5
Statewide	0.2	0.71	3.7

Low Costs = ISBE original recommendation to double pilot program initiated last year.

Medium Costs = Ill. Comm. & Governor request $610,000 plus $100,000 for recertification testing.

High Costs = Adds Ill. Comm. suggestion of 40 additional hours in classrooms for principals.

E. PERSONNEL COMPENSATION

15. Salaries and Performance Pay

Proposals include new minimum salary levels ranging from $15,000 to $20,000, with corresponding salary increases for current teachers, and planning grants for performance based pay scales enacted by local districts.

Costs:

	Low Cost	Mid Cost	High Cost
Chicago	$ 2.6	$ 45.5	$ 206.1
Statewide	21.0	227.0	860.9

Low Costs = Governor's proposal of $10.4 million for incentive pay planning grants plus $10.6 million aimed at districts paying less than $15,000. This figure would not raise all such teachers to $15,000 level.

Medium Costs = Pilot funding for performance-based pay plans on basis of Tennessee Career Teacher Plan (best available data for implemented programs) for 115,000 educational personnel (statewide) with rungs for apprentices (2%), probationers (10%), level one (48%, @ $1,000 additional stipend), level two (25%, @ $2,000), and level three (15%, @ $3,000).

High Costs = Proposals for $20,000 starting salaries add considerably to the costs of teacher compensation. The Ill. Project's Quality Education Compensation Act, moving teachers onto a 12 month year is estimated at $340 million statewide (Chicago, $94 million). The high cost estimates here follow the ISBE/Ill. Comm. proposals to reach the $20,000 starting salary level by 1987-88. Often neglected in these calculations are the costs of benefits and retirement obligations which mount with salaries. For 110,000 teachers, at an average 1987-88 salary of $29,533, and 11,000 administrators at an average salary of $43,668, $872.8 million additional will be required.

F. ADMINISTRATIVE CONFIGURATIONS

16. SCHOOL DISTRICT REORGANIZATION

Proposals: Encouraging or mandating consolidation of school districts. Illinois is one of only three states which allow three types of school districts: elementary, high school, and unit. The Ill. Project recommends mandatory consolidation to achieve only unit districts in the state (though districts could petition for exemption). Other proposals provide planning or financial encouragement incentives.

Issue: Since cost savings provide the motivation for consolidation, costs receive little attention in most reports. However, equalization of salaries, pensions, and debt burdens are potentially hugh.

Costs:

	Low Cost	Mid Cost	High Cost
Chicago	$ 0.0	$ 0.0	$ 0.0
Statewide	0.4	1.0	196.3

Low Costs = Ill. Comm. recommends a single, full-time employee of ISBE to analyze where consolidation might be beneficial.

Medium Costs = Provide demographic and financial studies, and interpretation of new laws regarding consolidation necessary for informed citizen decision-making.

High Costs = Equalizing teacher salaries between elementary and high school districts by raising 25,000 elementary district teachers to high school level salaries (gap is currently $7,851 statewide). This money would primarily go to suburban Cook County, including some of the wealthiest districts in the state.

G. COMMUNITY AFFAIRS

17. SCHOOL BUSINESS RELATIONS

Proposals: call for state initiative to bring business and school boards together. Illinois Project for School Reform suggests:

Education Venture Capital Fund & Illinois Privitization Act

Create an Education - Business Department in ISBE, without further cost.

Costs:

	Low Cost	Mid Cost	High Cost
Chicago	$ 0.0	$ 0.471	$ 4.8
Statewide	0.0	1.984	19.6

Low Cost = Volunteer Councils and foundation supported initiatives.

Medium Cost = $1 million to ISBE ($375,000 internships; 625,000 equipment) plus $600,000 for Venture Capital/Privitization Fund plus $5,000 per regional council.

High Cost = $8 million for internships and equipment; $0.5 million for Venture Capital; $8 million (ca. $8,000 per district) for Privitization Project; $50,000 for regional councils.

18. PUBLIC INFORMATION AND PUBLIC RELATIONS

Proposals: emphasize campaigns to improve the image of public schools, teacher recruitment drives, test results publication, community service by enrolled students, and an education bank which can be drawn upon by citizens.

Costs:

	Low Cost	Mid Cost	High Cost
Chicago	$ 0.0	$ 4.1	$ 9.0
Statewide	0.04	18.5	43.4

Low Costs = Assume state requirement for a local P.R. campaign can be met at no cost locally, with one full-time ISBE employee to coordinate and assist local efforts.

Medium Costs = Ill. Comm. plan for Community Service requirement, @ one teacher per 60 students at $105 per student over normal costs, for 140,000 high school sophmores.

High Costs = Community Service plus Education Bank @ $25 million per year (2.5% of owner-occupied residential property taxes).

II. REFORM IN OTHER STATES

EDUCATIONAL REFORM INITIATIVES IN SELECTED STATES

I. Introduction

Partly neglected in the 1970's, public education moved to the forefront of a nationwide policy debate in the 1980's. Education was not altogether forgotten in the past decade, although activities in the various states were not of the general nature or magnitude of the reforms of the 80's. Many states enacted reforms in school finances, but they did so principally in response to litigation of the Serrano type (Serrano v. Priest, 18 Cal. 3d 728, 1973), or to avoid such litigation. Serrano is the court case which required equity of eductional funding between districts in California. A number of other states adopted equity funding legislation to avoid being entrapped in similar suits. These well documented court-induced reforms arose in a number of states such as California, New Jersey and Washington. Other reforms occurred in addition to school finance. South Carolina, for example, initiated student testing programs one year after enacting school finance reform in 1977. But as mentioned earlier, few such reforms appeared.

The public became increasingly dissatisfied with the performance of schools in general during the 1970's and into the early 1980's. Students' scores on standardized tests fell steadily for many years. Polls showed the public gave the nation's schools lower and lower grades over the past decade, as indicated in Table 1. Ironically, however, the Gallup Poll (1984) showed a dramatic rise in nationwide public approval -- either a demonstration of new sympathy and understanding or an appreciation of quickly enacted reforms.

Table 1

Public Ratings of Public Schools

Grade Given to Public Schools	Percent of Those Polled 1974	1977	1980	1983	1984
A	18%	11%	10%	6%	10%
B	30%	26%	25%	25%	32%
C	21%	28%	29%	32%	35%
D	6%	11%	12%	13%	11%
F	5%	5%	6%	7%	4%

Source: George Gallup, "Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools", Phi Delta Kappan, 65, (September 1984), 25-38.

The public has shown their desire to improve education through their votes during the 1984 elections. Education Week (Oct. 31 and Nov. 14, 1984) reported that school reform was a major issue in the gubernatorial campaigns in many states and that "education" candidates easily won governorships. The nationally known education policies of the incumbent governors of Arkansas and Indiana reportedly helped the incumbents to easy victories. A candidate in Missouri also defeated his opponent with education reform as a major issue.

The principal catalyst for reforms came in the form of two reports released during the spring of 1983: A Nation at Risk, released by the National Commission on Excellence in Education, and Action for Excellence issued by the Education Commission of the States' Task Force on Education for Economic Growth. More studies on education were made and the states responded by setting up their own education task forces and commissions to develop reform programs. In 1983 alone, more than 250 new task forces were formed (Odden, 1984).

As would be expected, education reforms have not been introduced uniformly throughout the nation. Each state is unique in terms of its size, population demographics, educational policy, educational system and funding practices. The uniqueness of each state makes comparisons of progress among the states difficult to ascertain. At the beginning of this decade, the various states were at different starting points on the reform agenda. Some states such as Arkansas, California and Massachusetts, had major reform packages. The plans of Arkansas and California made it through the respective legislatures, while Massachusetts' plan failed to get through. Alaska's reform program is headed by the state department of education, without the hustle and bustle of commissions and task forces. Florida forged ahead with the passage of major reform bills and implemented many reform activities. Georgia, Washington, Ohio and Illinois are now in the process of considering major reform measures, a year behind much of the rest of the nation.

II. State Initiatives

This section reviews the reform programs in selected states that have either been implemented or have made it through the legislatures. This review focuses on the ten most active states and includes only activities of the last few years, beginning in 1981, thus excluding some reform activity that took place earlier in such states as Massachusetts and California (though much of the latter was in response to legal suits such as Serrano). This section only highlights major developments and is not intended to provide a comprenehsive analysis.

Data in this section were compiled from 1) phone conversations with officials of state departments of education, 2) Education Week in 1982, 1983, 1984, and 1985, and 3) The Nation Responds (Washington, D.C.: United States Department of Education, 1984).

Arkansas

The state adopted the recommendations of the State Education Standards Committee in February 1984, which will become effective in June 1987.

Students will not be allowed to legally drop out until their 17th birthday. A "promotional-gates" test in reading, mathematics, social studies and language arts will be established for grades 3, 6, and 8. Students must pass the basic skills test in the 8th grade in order to proceed to high school. If more than 15 percent fail the "promotional-gates" tests, the district must submit an improvement plan to the state. If the district shows no improvement after 2 years, it is subject to dissolution. Graduation requirements will be raised from 16 to 20 units in 1987. Legislation also requires districts to develop discipline policies.

Prospective teachers must pass a basic skills test and demonstrate academic skills in their subject area. Loans of up to 50 percent of costs for teacher training in mathematics and science will be available. This loan will be forgiven after five years of teaching. An average increase of $1,650 for teachers' salaries will bring the average up to $17,350. Programs were established for the professional development of teachers and administrators.

Other legislation requires instructional time to be increased from 5 to 5 1/2 hours per day. Beginning in June 1987, the school year will grow from 175 to 178 days and teacher contracts will lengthen to 185 days. In 1989, the school year will extend to 180 days, and teacher contracts to 190 days. The following pupil-teacher ratios were established: 20 to 1 for kindergarten; 25 to 1 for grades 1-6; and not more than 150 to 1 for grades 7-12, with a limit of 30 per class. Programs for academic enrichment and recognition were also established.

In 1983, a change in the funding formula abolished the hold-harmless clause. A one percent increase in the state sales tax helped pay for $160 million in school improvements. With about 400,000 students, Arkansas has less than one fourth as many students as Illinois.

California

The California legislature enacted a major educational reform bill, SB 813, for elementary and secondary education in July 1983, just 3 months after the release of A Nation at Risk.

In addition to the 8th grade testing point, legislation added 10th grade as a testing point in the state testing program. The optional Golden State High School Achievement Tests were instituted for seniors to obtain honors at graduation. Criteria are being established for a program to provide awards of up to $400 per pupil to schools that increase student achievement. The state augmented local graduation requirements to be effective in 1987. New mandates include 3 years each of English and social studies, 2 years each of mathematics and science (not including general science), 1 year each of fine arts or foreign languages, and 2 years of physical education. The state provided an additional $39.5 million for the purchase of textbooks and instructional materials in 1983. The legislation also provided for improved school discipline.

Teachers have to pass the California Basic Education Skills Test in order to be certified. Once certified, teachers must also complete 150 inservice hours of professional growth activity every 5 years to keep their certificate. The state will subsidize salaries of teachers up to $18,000 in 1983 dollars over a 3-year period. The $18,000 figure will be annually adjusted for inflation. Outstanding experienced teachers who work in curriculum development or who act as mentors for beginning teachers will receive a stipend of not less than an additional $4,000 per year and $2,000 for the district in support funding for each mentor. To overcome the shortage of teachers in particular areas such as mathematics and science, prospective teachers are eligible for loans that will be forgiven if they subsequently teach those subjects.

School districts have the option of increasing the school year by 5 days to 180 per year, and instructional time per day from 240 to 300 minutes (from four to five hours) in grades 4-8 and from 240 to 360 minutes (from four to six hours) in grades 9-12. The state will subsidize districts that choose to add time to their programs. Payments range from $20 to $40 per pupil for incremental increases in length of day and $30 per pupil for a 180 day minimum. Up to 5 percent of a district's teachers may receive state awards of up to $2,000 to improve their instructional abilities. The legislation also authorized a variety of pilot projects costing $2 million to help provide training for administrators. Additionally, the state provided $15 million for computer equipment and training.

State aid increased by $800 million between 1982-83 and 1983-84. Since California has about 4 million students, this increase amounts to only a 8 percent increase for the school finance formula and a 6.7 percent increase per pupil. In 1983-84, California still ranked 31st nationally in operating expenditures per pupil, estimated at $2,912. Lottery initiatives are expected to bring in $243 million for K-12 educational improvement in 1985-86.

Florida

In July 1983, the same month as the passage of the California reform, the Governor of Florida signed a comprehensive educational reform package. This legislation established the Florida Quality of Instruction Incentives Council to develop a merit pay program and to oversee general reforms.

Florida has had assessment tests in grades 3, 5, 9 and 11 since 1971. Third graders must pass the assessment test before being promoted. A statewide program, "Standards of Excellence" was slated to start testing high-achieving students in 1984-85. In 1986-87, high school graduation requirements will be raised to 24 units, the highest in the country. This will include 4 credits in English, 3 each in mathematics and science, and 1 each in American and world history, economics, American government, fine arts or vocational education, and composition and literature. Tenth graders will write a paper every week. Students must maintain a 1.5 average on a 4.0 scale to participate in extracurricular activities. Legislation also provides for the improvement of discipline, which includes immediate explusion of students convicted of a felony.

Applicants to state accredited, teacher education programs must score above the 40th percentile on a nationally normed test. Teachers must pass a written competency test for initial certification. A comprehensive merit pay program was initiated with approproations of $80 million in 1984-85. A career ladder program would provide bonuses of $3,000 to senior teachers and $5,000 to master teachers. The average salary of teachers is expected to rise by $2,000 in 1984-85. In 1983-84, the average teacher's salary in Florida, estimated at $19,545, ranked 35th nationally. Florida also set aside $9.2 million for summer inservice training in mathematics and science, and $1.4 million for the development and training of principals through the Council on Education Management. Efforts to attract students in the teaching profession include forgivable loans in shortage fields, summer institutes in shortage fields, and the hiring of non-certified personnel with doctoral degrees in shortage fields.

Hours of instruction in the school year increased from 900 to 1050 beginning in 1984-85. High school students have an added seventh period for more mathematics and science courses, for which $27 million was appropriated for 1984-85. Furthermore, the state will spend another $30 million for science and computer equipment. Out of school enrichment programs, sponsored by schools and community organizations, with special emphasis on science and mathematics and their applications, have been instituted. The state also provided $1 million for summer camps in science, mathematics and computer literacy for the students.

SUMMARY OF INITIATIVES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF MOST ACTIVE REFORM STATES

1. ENACTED REFORM	ILLINOIS (proposed)	ARKANSAS	CALIFORNIA	FLORIDA	INDIANA	KENTUCKY
a. Student testing	X	X	X	X	X	X
b. Raised graduation requirements	X	X	X	X	X	X
c. Mandated kindergarten	X					X
d. Teacher testing	X	X	X	X	X	X
e. Staff recertification/development	X	X	X	X	X	X
f. Increased salaries	X	X	X	X		
g. Career ladder/merit pay	X		X	X		
h. Teacher scholarships	X	X	X	X	X	X
i. Added instructional time	X	X	X	X	X	X
j. Reduced class size	X	X			X	X
2. APPROPRIATIONS (millions)	(g)	$160	$800 (a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
3. ENROLLMENT (1982) (thousands)	1,860	482	4,065	1,527	1,000	652
4. Per Pupil Expenditures						
a. 1980-81	$2,732	$1,753	$2,542	$2,405	$2,210	$1,892
b. 1983-84	$3,397	$2,257	$2,912	$3,201	$2,730	$2,550
c. percent change	24%	29%	15%	33%	24%	35%

(a) Includes general aid increase
(b) Not known
(c) Governor wants $400 million a year
(d) Governors request for $226 million failed in the legislature
(e) One billion over 3 years
(f) One billion court-approved plan failed state referendum
(g) Illinois Commission: 1.22 billion over 3 years; Illinois Project: 265 million; ISBE: 91.6 million; Governor: 136 million dollars

SUMMARY OF INITIATIVES continued

1. ENACTED REFORM	NEW YORK	SOUTH CAROLINA	TENNESSEE	TEXAS	WEST VIRGINIA
a. Student testing	X	X	X	X	X
b. Raised graduation requirements	X	X	X	X	X
c. Mandated kindergarten		X			
d. Teacher testing	X		X	X	X
e. Staff recertification/development	X			X	X
f. Increased salaries		X	X	X	X
g. Career ladder/merit pay		X	X	X	
h. Teacher scholarships	X	X	X		
i. Added instructional time		X	X		
j. Reduced class size			X		X
2. APPROPRIATIONS (millions)	$406 (a)	$200 (a)	$1,000 (e&a)	$1,000 (a)	(f)
3. ENROLLMENT (1982) (thousands)	2,705	615	828	2,986	803
4. Per Pupil Expenditures					
a. 1980-81	$3,591	$1,796	$1,835	$1,881	$2,132
b. 1983-84	$4,845	$2,657	$2,173	$2,676	$2,587
c. percent change	35%	48%	18%	42%	21%

For the first year of the reforms in Florida, a state with a student population of 1.5 million (as compared with Illinois' 1.8 million), state and local revenues grew by over $400 million or $267 per child. This amounted to an increase of just over 9 percent per student. The sales tax, enacted in 1982, increased from 4 percent to 5 percent, and the new unitary tax on foreigh income of corporations based in Florida provided the new state funds for educational change.

Indiana

As a result of the cooperative efforts of the Governor's Task Force on Education, the State Department of Education, the legislature and the business community, Indiana enacted many educational reforms.

The legislature approved a statewide basic skills test beginning in 1985. Follow-up remediation will be provided for students who do not achieve acceptable scores. Starting with the graduating class of 1989, graduation requirements will be raised from 32 credits to 38 credits (one credit is half a year of study). Students will need to complete 4 years of language arts, 2 each in mathematics, science and social studies, and 1 of physical education, health and safety.

All teachers must achieve a satisfactory score on a teacher license examination in order to be certified. The state also initiated a number of programs for the professional development of teachers and administrators. In particular, the Indiana Consortium for Computer and High Technology Education addresses the training needs of teachers and administrators. Forgivable loans of up to $10,000 are available to students in designated shortage areas. Certified teachers may also apply for grants of up to $1,000 to retrain in science and mathematics.

Effective in 1985, the school day will consist of a minimum length of [illegible] hours for grades 1-6 and 6 hours for grades 7-12. These are strictly hours for instruction and do not include lunch, recess or between-class time. Enacted legislation seeks to reduce class size in grades K-3 to 18 students over the next 4 years. The legislature also approved $1.5 million for gifted and talented programs for 1984-85.

Indiana's governor is making an attempt for the second consecutive year in the legislature for the approval of a merit pay plan. He also reportedly plans to ask for $1.6 billion in new funds for reform efforts over the next 4 years, for the state's one million pupils.

Kentucky

Various committees have been set up by different groups and individuals, including the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, the State Board of Education, the governor and independent groups, to make recommendations for eductional reform. Through these group efforts, and with the support of the legislature, Kentucky forged a program to improve education.

Effective September 1984, schools will operate for 6 hours a day, spent soley on instruction for 175 days a year. Mandatory kindergarten begins, effective in 1986. Legislation mandated testing for all students and the annual publication in local newspapers of achievement test results by school and by district. The state provides assistance to school districts that rank lowest in student achievement, and to help improve leadership, planning and time management. Graduation requirements increased from 16 to 20 units for freshmen entering in the fall of 1983, including 4 years of English, 3 years of mathematics, and 2 years of science. Legislation also passed requiring potential dropouts between the ages of 16-18 to have written, signed parental permission, witnessed by the principal, to withdraw from school.

Legislation enacted in 1984 requires competency testing and a one-year internship for certification of new teachers. Administrators must complete additional training to keep certification, and districts must adopt evaluation programs for all certified staff. A Commission of the Governor is developing a career ladder plan for teachers and administrators. To increase the number of mathematics and science teachers, the state offers a loan program under which recipients are forgiven a year of loan for each year of teaching.

The legislature rescinded several mandated programs, including consumer and career education, to make more time available for basics. The maximum class size would be 29 for grades 1-3 and 31 for grades 4-12. A number of academic enrichment programs were instituted, including programs offering courses in several universities to high-ability high school students in science, mathematics, psychology and computer science. New legislation now requires that candidates for local school boards have high school diplomas or their equivalent, and to undergo at least 15 hours of training.

In April 1984, the legislature failed to approve the governor's request for $324 million in new taxes, with $226 million designated for educational reforms for Kentucky's 650,000 students. But the legislature permitted local districts to levy any or all of the following: utility gross receipts tax, excise tax on income, and an occupational license tax. In order to qualify for equalization funding (based on property, wealth and tax rate) districts must levy a minimum tax of 15 cents per $100 of property value.

New York

In 1984, the Board of Regents approved a major 5-year "Action Plan to Improve Elementary and Secondary Education in New York," estimated to cost about $203 million in 1985-86.

In addition to the current Regents competency tests in reading, writing and mathematics, 3 new tests in science, global studies and American history will be phased in. Students must take these tests for graduation. For the class of 1989, graduation requirements have been raised from 16 credits to 18.5 credits. The requirements include 4 years each of English and social studies, 2 years each of mathematics and science, 1 year of arts and music, plus additional sequence requirements. The governor's $8 million plan to improve attendance and retention increased to $28 million in 1984. To reduce the dropout rate and improve job opportunities for high school students, the Governor's plan also contains a school-to-work program for 16 and 17 year olds from poor families.

Teachers must pass basic skills, professional knowledge and subject area tests for certification. All teachers and administrators are to receive an annual performance review, effective August 1986. The legislature allocated $2 million for scholarships and forgivable loans to attract mathematics and science teachers.

Effective for the class of 1992, all students will study 1 year of foreign language between kindergarten and 9th grade. This foreign language requirement will increase to 2 years starting with the class of 1994. Another enrichment program, to be implemented in 1986, provides for some 8th graders to take accelerated courses in 5 of 8 areas. The legislature also allocated $10 million to reimburse school districts for the purchase of computer hardware, and $8 million for software.

The various reform programs in New York, a state with one million more students than Illinois, are primarily responsible for the record increase of $460 million in state aid for 1984-85. This brings the total state contribution to elementary and secondary education up to $5.3 billion, amounting to approximately 40.5 percent of the money needed to operate public schools.

South Carolina

In 1984, South Carolina passed the Education Improvement Act, a comprehensive education package costing about $200 million in new funding for 1984-85. South Carolina has about 600,000 public school students.

Kindergarten becomes mandatory for all 5 year olds, and a preschool program for disadvantaged 4 year olds would be instituted, effective 1985. The 6 hour school day excludes lunch break, and the school year for teachers would be extended to 190 days to provide 5 days added for planning. High school graduation requirements increased from 18 to 20 units, which will include 3 units of mathematics (up from 2) and 2 units of science (up from 1). Academic enrichment programs include summer programs for the gifted and talented and advanced placement courses in colleges. There are also proposals that schools and districts be rewarded for exceptional achievement. Students leaving school without passing the newly required exit test will receive a diploma indicating years in the system and total credits earned. In order to participate in extracurricular activities, students must have an overall passing grade and carry at least four courses. The act requires school districts to establish clear rules for student behavior to ensure discipline.

Prospective and current teachers will receive increased preparation in their subject area. Competitive grants would be available to teachers to improve teaching practices. The state allocated $60 million to raise teachers' salaries by 16 percent, up to the Southeastern average, the lowest regional average in the United States. An incentive program is to be developed to reward teachers who demonstrate superior performance. The Department of Education established an Assessment Center Program to assist districts to select the most effective principals. To overcome the need for teachers in shortage areas, college graduates with at least a bachelor's degree in the appropriate content areas who can demonstrate teaching competency, will be given provisional contracts to teach. Other initiatives include forgivable loans and retraining of teachers who want to change fields.

The Education Improvement Act would cause state aid to education to increase by about 27 percent. The state expects the money to come from the increase in sales tax from 4 percent to 5 percent. Most of the new funds will be allocated through the pupil-weighted foundation funding formula.

Tennessee

Tennessee considered the "Better Schools Program" even before the release of the national reports on education in 1983. Governor Thompson's "Illinois Better Schools Program" not only shares the name of Tennessee Governor Alexander's program, but they also employ the same political consulting firm. However, Tennessee's program, with slight modifications, was to become law only in an unprecedented special legislative session in 1984.

Tennessee allocated $1.5 million to ensure the availability of kindergarten to all 5 year olds. Tennessee also provided $1 million for testing: norm-referenced tests in mathematics and language arts for grades 2, 5, 7 and 9; criterion-referenced tests in reading and mathematics for grades 3, 6 and 8. Starting with the freshman class of 1983-84, graduation requirements increased from 18 total units and 1 year each of mathematics and science to 20 total units with 2 years each of mathematics and science. Students must also pass a minimum-competency test for high school graduation. The program also provides for additional funding for textbooks and instructional materials, and better classroom discipline.

Students wishing to enter teacher training programs must now submit a score on the California Achievement Test of the Pre-Professional Skills Test. Beginning with the 1985-86 year, a candidate must also pass a standardized test of written composition. to be certified, all graduates need to pass a core test that measures basic skills, and a standardized test for the desired areas of endorsement. A training institution will be placed on probation if 30 percent of its students fail the competency test. State approval will be revoked for failure rates exceeding 30 percent for 2 consecutive years. However, state approval may be regained if 70 percent of the students have passing scores in an academic year. Serving as a model for many proposals nationwide, Tennessee's career ladder program with five rungs for teachers will cost $50 million for 1985-86 and $120 million when fully implemented. Supplements range from $500 to $7,000, depending on the level and the length of contract. Teachers in the program must pass a recertification evaluation every 5 years. A career ladder program with three rungs has also been established for administrators, with supplements ranging from $4,000 to $7,000. Provisions for across the board salary increases of 10 percent will cost $69 million in 1985-86. The average teacher salary in 1983-84 was estimated at $17,900, ranking 44th in the nation. To encourage mathematics and science students to be teachers, forgivable loans are available for those who will teach for 4 years in the state.

The school year will be extended from 175 to 180 days. Maximum class sizes have been set at: 25 for K-3, 28 for grade 4, 30 for grades 5-6, and 35 for grades 7-12. Plans call for teachers aides in grades 1-3, with a ration of 1 aide for every 25 students by 1987. Other reform programs include funding for computer skills, increased mathematics and science instruction in high school, and programs for the gifted.

The reform package will cost Tennessee, a state with less than half the public school enrollment (800,000) of Illinois, more than $1 billion over the next 3 years. New funds come from new business taxes and the increase in sales tax from 4.5 to 5.5 percent, effective July 1984.

Texas

The governor, true to his campaign promises made before the 1982 election, actively pursued education improvement in Texas. In a state with a student population of almost three million, the governor's $2.8 billion Educational Opportunity Act passed the legislature in 1984. Less than $1 billion, however, was appropriated for 1984-85, its first effective year.

Students must take achievement tests every two years. Graduation requirements increased from 18 to 21 units, which must include 4 units of English, 3 units of mathematics, 2 units of science, 2 1/2 units of social studies, 1/2 unit of economics, 1 1/2 units of physical education, 1/2 unit of of health and 7 electives. Selected districts are piloting innovative after-school and summer programs to enrich mathematics and science instruction. An advanced diploma with 22 units was also instituted. New laws limit participation in extracurricular activities to those who pass 4 out of 5 courses with a grade of 70. Furthermore, students must pass an exit examination to graduate from high school.

Beginning in 1984, students wishing to enter approved teacher education programs must demonstrate mastery of basic reading, writing and mathematics. By 1986, teachers would have to pass a second test of proficiency in the appropriate subject areas prior to certification. The Texas Education Agency sponsors pilot programs to improve teacher and administrator skills. Texas also introduced a 3-tier certification system, and established state minimum starting salaries of $15,200. Experienced teachers must receive yearly increments of at least $1,700.

A revised state aid formula, based on weighted student counts, seeks to provide greater equalization and will cost an additional $1.9 billion in 1984-85 alone. To pay for educational reforms, the sales tax was increased another one percent.

West Virginia

In May 1981, the State Court of West Virginia declared the education finance system unconstitutional. The court called for quality education in the state. Subsequently the court accepted a plan developed by the education department estimated to cost $1 billion. West Virginia has about 800,000 students. A statewide school finance referendum failed, however, thus allowing the state to proceed with only those programs without prohibitive costs.

Higher graduation requirements now include 4 years of English, 2 years of mathematics, 1 year of science and 3 years of social studies. The court ordered plan also requires the integration of computers into the curriculum. Minimum learner outcomes have been established for each subject, and tests will be criterion-referenced. In January 1984, West Virginia became the first state to require students to maintain a C average to participate in extracurricular activities.

Teachers in training must pass a basic skills proficiency test, a content area test and a professional education performance assessment. Teachers will be evaluated at least once a year while beginning teachers will be evaluated twice a year. The average salary of teachers rose by $2,000. A sliding scale has been included in the salary program to increase the salaries of those in poor regions to the state average level. Studies are in progress for incentive and career ladder programs. A Principals Academy was established in 1984 to upgrade leadership.

Many of the proposals for improving education in West Virginia await funding in order to be implemented. The current session of the legislature will decide on how far education reforms will go. Meanwhile, the West Virginia Education Fund, established in 1983 to advance the quality of public education, boasts of being the first statewide, privately funded education foundation in the nation.

Summary

Only programs implemented or enacted by legislatures are reviewed above. Though not constituting a complete list, they provide selected highlights of the most comprehensive reforms among the states. Note that 7 of the 10 most active reform states are in the South, 5 of which are in the Southeast. Many other reform proposals have not been included. Some proposals will not pass their various legislatures, and those that do sometimes take on different forms, having been amended while passing through various committees.

In the 10 states mentioned in this study, certain reform initiatives commonly occur: 1) preschool programs and mandatory kindergarten; 2) additional testing of both students and teachers; 3) increased high school graduation requirements; 4) higher teachers' salaries; 5) lengthened school day or year; and 6) smaller class sizes. A nationwide survey of reform activities by Education Week (Feb. 6, 1985) listed the various components of educational reform state by state. Among these components, "raised graduation requirements" was by far the most popular, having been enacted in 43 of 50 states (including Illinois, last year).

III. Cost Estimates of Selected Programs

Preschool Programs

Preschool programs are believed to be cost effective ways to decrease the need for remedial services in later grades for the educationally disadvantaged. South Carolina instituted a program for disadvantaged 4 year olds. The cost for this program is derived by multiplying the number of teachers needed by average salary and benefits. The number of teachers needed is based on the number of children eligible.

Testing

Many states believe that one way to achieve excellence is requiring students to pass minimum competency tests. States such as Arkansas and Florida have set up extensive testing programs. Estimated costs consider costs for test development, printing, administering and grading, and together, these costs tend to be insignificant relative to the total cost of all other reform initiatives. In South Carolina, however, tests are not end products but the beginning of remedial programs. Hence South Carolina will spend 30 percent of the cost of its entire education reform program on remediation.

Graduation Requirements

On the average, the states provide very little money to fund new graduation requirements. Arkansas and California provided no new resources for new requirements. Florida, with the highest requirement in the country (24 units), makes no separate appropriation for this purpose. The only additional funds made available are those allocated ($27 million) for districts adding a seventh period. South Carolina addresses this cost more directly, by estimating the number of new teachers needed for the new courses required in mathematics and science. This number is then multiplied by the average teacher salary plus benefits, to arrive at the cost of raising requirements.

Teachers Salaries

California has set out to raise the salaries of teachers to $18,000 and then annually adjust the minimum according to an index. The cost to the state was derived by identifying the number of beginning teachers with salaries below $18,000 and calculating how much money was needed to raise these salaries by 10 percent per year over 3 years, or to bring them up to $18,000 (whichever was smaller). This program cost California $3 million in 1983-84 and about $6 million in 1984-85. These figures were relatively low, and only 25 percent of the appropriations, because few new teachers were hired that year and because so few new teachers earned less than $18,000, and because many districts chose not to participate in the program.

Tennessee reform plans include a 10 percent across the board salary increase. South Carolina hopes to raise teacher salaries to the average of the Southeastern states. West Virginia has raised the average teacher salary by $2,000.

Merit Pay/Career Ladder

Many states have instituted programs of one kind or another to reward teachers for effort or performance. These programs vary from state to state. Tennessee enacted a comprehensive five-rung career ladder plan. California has a mentor teacher program that provides an annual bonus of $4,000 for 5 percent of the teachers in each district. Florida instituted a two-rung master teacher program. The percentage of teachers eligible for merit pay varies considerably from state to state, from 5 percent in California to 80 percent in Tennessee. Dollar amounts of the rewards also vary widely by state. In spite of the diversity, the relatively simple costing is done by multiplying the number of teachers on each rung by the award for that rung, and adding the products of all rungs. However, complications may arise when taking account of costs of program administration and teacher evaluation. These costs may comprise nearly 20 percent of the total cost in Tennessee.

Longer School Days and Years

Among the many states, Arkansas, California and Florida have lengthened the school day. Arkansas increased the school day by 1/2 hour to 5 1/2 hours, and increased the school year from 175 to 178 days for students and 180 days for teachers. California encouraged a lengthened the school year from 175 to 180 days, and instructional time per day from 4 hours to 5 hours for grades 4-8 and from 4 hours to 6 hours for high school. In Florida, the hours of instruction in the school year increased from 900 to 1050. This meant adding a 7th period (about 50 minutes) to the school day for additional courses in mathematics and science.

Assuming that the new funding system will take care of extra funding for more instructional time, Arkansas does not provide any extra funds. California determined costs by first dividing 5 (days added) by 175 (days in old school year) and multiplying the result by the revenue limit for each district. The product is then multiplied by 6 (the average amount of current operating expenditures spent on instruction). Cost calculations of increasing the school day utilized this same methodology. Because of the expense of the estimated total cost of $200 million, the state decided to make the program voluntary rather than mandatory, so that only schools opting to add instructional time will be compensated. Several methods of estimating costs of adding instructional time were considered in Florida. One was to consider the added cost to be one-sixth of the current cost of high school education (addition of 1 period to the original 6). This would amount to $100 million of new funding, which, again, was considered too expensive. So, like California, Florida made this program available on a voluntary basis. West Virginia took a rather different view relative to additional time. Rather than having longer school days and/or years, the state has chosen to establish programs to help teachers and administrators use time more efficiently.

Smaller Class Sizes

Even small reductions in class size increase costs tremendously. Hence, only some states instituted this change. Arkansas fixed the maximum class size at 20 for kingergarten, 25 for grades 1-6, and 30 for high school. Indiana's Project Prime Time allocated $19 million to reduce student-teacher rations in grades K-3. Kentucky set a maximum of 29 pupils per class in grades K-3 and 31 pupils per class in grades 4-6. Estimating costs for reductions in class size is often based on the number of additional teachers required. The number of teachers required multiplied by the average salary-and-benefits figure yields the additional cost for this program.

IV. Conclusion

Although there might be differences in emphasis among the various proposed packages, they all share a common obstacle standing in the way of implementing these reforms -- funding, or rather, the lack of funding. Who will pay for the reforms? Federal funding for public schools has declined each year since 1980 (Action in the States, 1984). This year, President Reagan again proposed to cut aid to education. Taxpayer revolts by property owners generally have ruled out dependence on local sources. States, therefore, bear the burden of the costs for educational reforms.

Increases in sales taxes has proven to be the most popular method used by states to raise money to pay for educational reforms. This is understandable because of the convenience of collection, the sizable amount that the sales tax returns to the states, and the current unpopularity of income taxes. Arkansas and South Carolina are among the states that have raised the sales tax. But instead of relying on sales tax, California chose to raise funds by lottery initiatives and by closing tax loopholes. The fact that financial considerations held up full implementation of California's reform package (SB 813) may cause the state to reconsider its fund-raising approaches. "Sin taxes" or taxes on tobacco and alcohol also funded school reform in several states including Florida and Missouri. The Federal Government's recently announced plans to lower taxes on tobacco from 16 percent to 8 percent, if implemented, could be a boon to various states which could pick up the money given up by the Federal Government. Florida also established a tax on foreign income of Florida-based corporations, while Minnesota has imposed a temporary income-tax surcharge.

Regardless of how states raise funds to support reforms, inadequate funding often plagues reform efforts. States like West Virginia and California, with their nationally-known reform plans, have been forced to delay full implementation of their reform package due to a shartage of funds. It has been suggested that an increase of at least 20 percent of the operating expenditures of schools is necessary to implement the recommendations contained in A Nation at Risk (Howe, 1983; Wagner, 1984). The American Association of School Administrators (1983) mentioned an estimate of 28 percent.

The Texas legislature pared the original $2.8 billion reform package passed by the legislature to less than $1 billion for 1984, with most designated for salary improvement in low wealth districts (Educ. Week, May 2, 1984). The budget compromise delays implementation of a longer school year, optional preschool for 4 year olds, class size reduction, and full day kindergarten funding.

Florida's state school chief recently called for a slow down in the state reform efforts, with the primary problem centering on the hiring of 3,000 new teachers for Florida's new seventh period in the high schools (Educ. Week, June 6, 1984). "We must continue to implement the changes," he argues, "at the pace that the legislature can fund." The 1983 legislature added the seventh period requirements, but left it up to the 1984 lawmakers to finance the effort. Unsure about the availability of state money, many districts failed to hire teachers. A $100 million revenue shortfall also cut merit pay appropriations in half.

Oklahoma's budget problem -- caused by a large revenue shortfall when oil and gas prices fell during 1983 -- illustrates the problem of state governments seeking massive educational improvements (Educ. Week, Dec. 14, 1983). In exchange for more rigorous certification requirements, teacher salaries rose by $6,000 over the 1980-83 period. But more than 1 in 10 teachers faced lay-offs for part of 1983.

Many states adopted new funding formulas, or have modified old ones in the last few years, in a move toward more equitable systems of funding. And much more than half of all new funds for educational reforms is being allocated through state-aid formulas. Florida and South Carolina distribute about 75 percent of the increased aid for educational reform through their equalizing formulas. The only major component of reforms in the states that typically remains outside of general aid formulas is merit pay for school personnel, where districts usually receive money for merit pay as flat grants. Hence, it generally appears that the states have not abandoned finance equity in the pursuit of excellence. But equity requires close monitoring because the nature of reform programs could affect equity either positively or negatively. Programs designs to help the disadvantaged, for example, may be considered positive steps.

Little evaluation of the effectiveness of the reforms has appeared. Many states have only partially implemented their reform plans, and many still face approval of the plans. Moreover, it will take, at the very least, a few years for results to appear -- for schools to produce better achievers and for empirical tests to be conducted. Requests for reports on evaluations from state offices of education often yield only "status reports" describing a list of what has been implemented and what is next on the agenda.

Finally, in a general overview of the reform activities of various states, two ingredients appear necessary for any reform plan's success. One is the commitment to education of all leaders in the state, including educational, corporate and most of all, political leaders. States with "education governors" somehow seem to have made more strides in the quest for excellence in education. Even better off are states in which all leaders share a common view of giving top priority to education. The second ingredient is money to implement the reforms proposed.

III. REVIEW OF REFORM PROPOSALS IN 18 ARENAS

A. STUDENT ACCOUNTABILITY

1. Student Testing

The Illinois State Board of Education would settle for legislation requiring local districts to use a variety of tests and measurement tools to document the accomplishment of local outcome statements. The results would be submitted to the State and published locally. The Illinois Commission endorses these goals but progresses one step further. The State would require students to, "Demonstrate academic proficiency levels" at the 3rd, 6th, 8th, and 10th grade levels specifically in reading, math, and language arts. The data would help determine student promotion or retention and eligibility for state-funded remediation. Furthermore, as a result of public reporting, top-achieving districts would receive commendation. The CTU endorses the basic principle of the Illinois Commission except, "performing below academic proficiency" is not defined, and in-grade retention is not explicitly related to test score criteria. The Illinois Project for School Reform merges the two concepts by recommending tests keyed to district learning objectives that measure student performance, also at the 3rd, 6th, 8th, and 10th grades. The Illinois project makes no connection between test outcomes, retention decisions, and remediation requirements.

Governor Thompson's reform plan, emphasizing uniform reporting directs districts to choose from a limited number of state-approved, nationally-normed tests and directs testing of children in the same grade levels as recommended by the Illinois Commission and the Illinois Project. Tests would determine student promotion along the lines of the Illinois Commission proposals. Unlike the ISBE position, accountability measures would lead the instructional program. Test data would appear on a school "report card," distributed to parents and community. It would index school performance against state and national norms, past trends, and goals. At the same time, Thompson's proposal specifies "equitable" accountability by comparing school districts to comparable populations.

The issues of fair testing and placement arises in the Citizens Schools Committee's (1982) School Accountability Study. A monitoring Commission for testing would be established to monitor testing and placement based on tests. Similar to the Governors" School Report Card, principals would have to publish a report giving: 1) the distribution of teacher evaluations ratings, 2) goals and progress in student achievement including college entrance tests scores at the high school level, and bilingual students assessments, and 3) promotion and retention data.

Background

According to John Casteen, Secretary of Education in Virginia, "There is an extraordinary difference of opinion about the role of testing. Educators want to use tests for diagnosis and placement, but lay people take a punitive approach." (Educ. USA, Nov. 7, 1983). The ISBE position clearly reflects the diagnostic use of tests, while Governor Thompson's proposal seems aimed at embarrassing local districts into improving achievement. A November 1983 survey of state legislatures found a shift from statewide testing programs merely to measure proficiency to testing as an ingredient for rethinking curricula (Siegel, 1983). The development of criterion-referenced tests and test-based educational assessment programs, according to Mitchell and Encarnation (1984), helped shift attention away from individual students and toward evaluation of school performance. However, recent educational reform, both in Illinois and nationally, runs counter to these trends.

The Commission on Excellence in Education (1983) recommended that, "Standardized tests of achievement (not to be confused with aptitude tests)", should be administered at major transition points from one level of schooling to another. The purposes would include identifying the need for both remediation and advanced work. Specifically, the Commission strongly reacted against the use of minimum competency tests because the minimum becomes the maximum, thus lowering education standards for all.

While several states adopted or planned statewide testing programs over the last two years, state requirements for student testing have pervaded the nation for some time. The A Nation At Risk Report identified 37 states that require some kind of minimum competency examinations, and as many as 26 have high school exit examinations. Illinois has no statewide mandated testing programs, primarily because of existing widespread student achievement testing. For several years, the ISBE has actively encouraged standardized achievement testing and has provided technical assistance. The Illinois Inventory of Educational Progress (IIEP), a standardized achievement test normed to Illinois, has been developed by the ISBE for grades 4, 8, and 11 and has been available to districts on a voluntary basis. The technical quality of commercial tests is probably better than for the IIEP. Chicago has both a standardized achievement testing program and, within the context of its mastery learning program, competency-based tests.

At least 20 states have state-mandated testing programs, at more than one grade level when resemble the proposed testing programs in Illinois, although some use "competency" tests while others emphasize standardized testing (Educ. Week, Dec. 7, 1983). Wisconsin's program is voluntary and Michigan stipulates that its required testing programs should be used only for diagnostic purposes, a position similar to the ISBE proposal. In Arkansas, school districts with low achievement levels may be "dissolved" if they fail to show improvement. New Jersey has had an elaborate monitoring system since 1975 that allows the state to intervene if standards are not met (Educ. Week, Mar. 15, 1984). Mississippi (Educ. Week, May 9, 1984), Iowa (Educ. Week, ________ 1984), and Kentucky (Educ. Week, Mar. 14, 1984), have considered other plans linking poor academic performance to state takeover, fund reallocation or the removal of key educational personnel. Alabama, Delaware, Kansas, South Carolina, Missouri, Maryland, New York, and Oregon link test scores with some form of outside assistance or funding for improvement.

While no state links promotion to standardized achievement test scores, Delaware, Florida, and Louisiana link promotion to the passage of minimum competency tests. Ohio, Kentucky, and Pennsylvania specifically tie remedial education to test scores. The widespread surge in minimu competency testing in the late 1970s, however, increased retention rates which rose from 3.5 percent nationally in 1976 to 17 percent in 1978 (Educ. Daily, May 17, 1984) thus leading to a proliferation of local remediation programs. Governor Thompson's program suggests this outcome and approach to remediation in Illinois.

Though Illinois stops short of linking state accreditation to student achievement, both the Governor's proposal and the Illinois Commission link student retention to test results. If such proposals turn out to be other than symbolic, they may easily be challenged in courts. The generally lower scores of blacks and other minorities on standardized achievement tests reflect unsolved social and economic segregation. In such cases as Arreola v. Santa Anna Board of Education (No. 160-577, S.D. Cal., 1968), Diana v. California State Board of Education (No. C-70-37-RFR, N.D. Cal., 1973), and Guadalupe v. Tempe Elementary School District (587 F. 2d. 1022, 9th Cir., 1978) testing practices leading to the disproportionate placement of minority children in classes for the mentally handicapped were successfully challenged.

The most recent case of major importance, Debra P. v. Turlington, upheld Florida's minimum competency test for high school graduation -- but only after all black students had attended desegregated schools for 12 years and only if Florida schools teach the skills necessary to pass the test (Educ. Week, May 9, 1984). Mississippi's Superintendent of Education recently asked for a delay in implementing graduation requirements that include minimum competency testing to ensure that tests reflect the curricula taught in schools and that students have time to prepare (Educ. Week, Oct. 17, 1984).

Effectiveness

Criterion-referenced tests, sometimes associated with "competency" testing and norm-referenced tests (standardized tests) comprise the two basic types of educational testing. The two types of tests differ in their purposes, development, procedures, and costs. Norm-referenced measures compare groups or individuals. Such tests are designed to result in a broad distribution of scores with clearly defined comparison rules (i.e., "it is 68% certain that one student can read or compute better than another"). Norm-referenced tests are expensive to produce locally, so these widely used tests are usually purchased commercially. Typically, norm-referenced assessment provides information concerning student performance comparisons with grade levels (i.e., "this student is reading one year below grade level").

Criterion-referenced tests compare individuals or groups to an objective performance standard (i.e., "this student can compute single digit multiplication problems with 80% accuracy"). Such tests usually do not provide information that can be compared validly across students. Criterion-referenced measures usually are designed, rather than purchased, by school districts. Such tests frequently have questionable technical properties and lack a reasonable system for selecting performance standards. It is this type of testing that best fits the idea of using locally specified objectives along with tests of these specific objectives, although it might be possible to carry out such a plan in a less specific manner using norm-referenced tests.

The various reform proposals specify four ways tests would be utilized:

1) Provide objective information on the degree to which state expectations for learning are being met (Illinois Commission).

2) Provide objective information on the degree to which local learning objectives have been met (Illinois Commission, ISBE, and the Illinois Project).

3) Criteria for in-grade reflections and remedial work (Illinois Commission, Governor).

4) Make comparisons among schools (ISBE, Governor, Illinois Commission, Illinois Project for School Reform).

The ISBE plan calls for the determination of local objectives and the local selection of standardized tests or the design of criterion-referenced tests. The plan leaves control of educational objectives almost entirely in the hands of local districts and attempts to enhance education by requiring local districts to formally decide upon the goals of instruction. Much of this type of decision-making has been given over to the publishing companies, however. The adoption of objectives often means selecting a commercially-produced curriculum and test. The ISBE policy should describe a process which would encourage a wide participation of community members and school personnel in determining the goals of instruction.

The Illinois Commission confuses these ways of measuring student achievement, usually assuming the use of whichever test type best satisfies the needs of a particular cost estimate or objective. The Illinois Commission's cost estimates (Reference Note 1), for example, interpreted "grade-level" as a "Phrase that could be interpreted to refer to criterion-referenced tests," or "could be interpreted to require norm-referenced testing." Some objectives of the proposal would be difficult to accomplish using only one type of test. Using both test types could increase the program costs to maximum levels for virtually all relevant features of the program and would both complicate the local decision-making process and sacrifice increasingly large amounts of instructional time for testing. The Governor's proposal, vividly contrasting with the ISBE position, unambiguously calls for standardized testing to allow numerous and, the Governor alleges, easily understood comparisons between students and schools.

Providing evidence that state expectations for learning have been met, if defined in the global terms the ISBE has pursued, will prove difficult no matter what kind of test is used.

Though norm-referenced tests are global by design, their normative approach guarantees failure for some percentage of students no matter how well the students accomplish the global objectives. Criterion-referenced tests, on the other hand, require the adoption of more specific, detailed, and measurable objectives. The specification of such objectives at the state level, such as retaining all students one year below grade level, would represent a major transfer of local control of schools to the state. The local design of specific objectives relative to the state's global objectives retains the basic element of local control. The task would require the specification of objectives and proficiency levels for at least nine grades of instruction, and not just at the four levels to be tested. The design of objectives at the local level would be a simple matter in many districts that already have such objectives in place (i.e., Chicago Mastery Learning, etc.). Just like tests and textbooks, objectives can be purchased in the market place. In any event, the lack of comparability of such objectives across districts would render the public reporting provisions of the legislation useless for the purpose of comparing districts.

The Governor's proposal to allow districts to only use ISBE-approved, nationally-normed tests, recognizes the possibility of misusing tests. Analyses of classroom teaching indicates the primacy of textbooks in determining what content is emphasized. Because norm-referenced tests match up differently with different curriculum materials, local districts would be encouraged to adopt those materials that lead to the best performance on the state tests. This would also be true for state-approved criterion-referenced tests. Criterion-referenced tests lead to a more specific "teaching to the test" than might be evident with norm-referenced tests. Such a result could lead to students doing better on the state objectives which are tested and poorer on the overall goals (i.e., reading, writing, math) of the educational program.

The local selection of tests could also encourage "test shopping", thus making district comparisons specious and thus rendering absurd a program of state commendation of local districts. The Southern Regional Education Board, for example, shows that 9 of 11 southern states that have a norm-referenced testing program were at or above national norms, even though other data suggests the opposite proportion (Educ. Week, Nov. 24, 1984). One reason they suggest is that we really have no truly national norms because they are outdated and not truly national (national norms for large cities are not national norms, for example). Further, teaching to and of the test 15 almost unavoidable if tests are used for evaluating schools or personnel. Not only does the possibility of outright cheating exist, a regularity in Chicago (Chicago Tribune, August 24, 1984), but teachers are able to purchase tests on the "black market". Practice tests freely sold at "Teachers Store", such as the Educational Resource Center for Teachers (5606 West 63rd Street, Chicago).

Regardless of technical issues, test results are correlated with socio-economic status. The poorest districts will find themselves with the greatest increase in student population if tests determine retention and in per student costs for remediation. Such districts will find themselves prohibited from offering much instruction in the areas beyond those that relate directly to tests, such as experience with computers, science, art, athletics, music, and foreign languages. Preoccupation with testing could lead to a narrowing of the objectives of education to a point that damages community support, student motivation, and achievement that testing programs are designed to enhance.

Existing Cost Estimates

For purposes of establishing local objectives, assessment, public reporting, and revision of programs for low achieving students, the ISBE estimated local district costs of $9,000,000 annually, or about $6.00 per student (Reference Note 2). Former Superintendent Gill proposed $4.3 million in state categorical grants to assist local districts. No rationale for the specific cost estimates was given, nor did the estimates distinguish between objectives/assessment/reporting costs and program revision.

The Illinois Commission assumed no new costs for determining state expectations but specified these costs:

Establish criteria for academic proficiency	$ 22,880
Development of state-level anchor items (for comparing districts) and implementation assistance (plus one year of pilot testing at $840,000)	400,000
Identify top-achieving schools	25,000
State cost of new test reporting procedures	78,000
Local objective setting and testing (assuming that 20 percent of districts have not developed testing programs)	2,280,000
Local reporting ($1.60 per pupil for 4 grade levels	960,000
	$3,765,880

For many reasons these estimates may be on the low side. Though the various recommendations do not explicitly call for a state-level proficiency exam or a state item bank, the limited collection of "state items" to allow comparability of districts is essential to the monitoring of local assessment systems -- especially if they play a strong role in retention decisions. It is crucial that state items and local tests measure unambiguously the abilities they are intended to measure. Otherwise, this program would give rise to a plethora of legal difficulties for decisions made on the basis of such tests. The $400,000 estimate for this effort may be inadequate. Test validation and norming is an involved process that requires a great deal of analysis and field-testing. Each of the three tests for each of 4 grade levels probably would have to be administered to about 2500 children (about 100 classes) at each grade level. However, because of the need to specify performance standards one year to 18 months below grade level, it will be necessary to test grades 2, 5, 7 and 9.

Any effective program of testing will require some type of monitoring of results or the administration of tests by non-district personnel to assure fair and accurate results. The costs of monitoring is not included in these cost estimates.

Local costs for objective setting and test selection may be underestimated by the Commission. Most local committees address a severely limited yearly agenda and require the expenditure of few, if any, funds for personnel or other costs. Most of these committees meet briefly on an occasional basis with no remuneration beyond regular salaries. As many as 50% of the districts could be in the "high need/high cost" category. For more than 90% of districts, adoption of new standardized testing practices could take the place of existing standardized testing and would require little or no additional expenditures.

The costs of designing a criterion-referenced test are probably at least twice those of selecting and adopting norm-referenced tests. The grade level equivalent score is clearly a norm-referenced idea, but it would be possible to design criterion-referenced tests with this feature. There are few, if any, commercially available, criterion-referenced tests that provide such information based on grade levels, however. The use of this type of test would require the state or local districts to design new measures or to adapt commercial measures to satisfy the legislation.

Reform Cost Estimates

The direct costs of a state-mandated testing program, like the costs of changing graduation requirements, proves to be relatively inexpensive. This feature surely provides the major reason for the widespread appearance of testing issues on reform agendas. The indrect costs of testing policies, such as remediation, program changes, and new curricula, and other hidden costs certainly overshadow the direct costs of test development and utilization. These estimates consider only direct costs:

		Illinois	Chicago
1.	Low Cost (Governor)	$ 3,918,000	$ 720,000
2.	Low Cost (Illinois Commission)	3,765,880	960,000
3.	Medium Cost (Norm-referenced model)	11,260,000	1,500,000
4.	Medium Cost (Criterion-referenced model)	19,260,000	2,760,000
5.	High Cost	27,960,000	7,993,000

The low-cost estimate for the Governor's proposal assumes no new test-related costs. It includes $78,000 for reporting costs to the State and $2.9 million for local "report card" costs ($1.60 per pupil x 1.8 million pupils). The Illinois Commission plan costs are the same as those calculated by the Commission (Reference Note 1). Chicago costs represent $3 per pupil (low need per pupil costs with respect to test development) for local objective setting and test selection.

The medium cost plans are calculated for two state testing policies, one emphasizing standardized tests, and one emphasizing criterion-referenced tests. We assume that state anchor item development costs are $1 million -- more than double the Illinois Commission's estimates. State-level costs for reporting test scores and identifying top-achieving schools is set at $100,000.

Per pupil local objective setting and test selection costs are the same as those used by the Illinois Commission, $7 per pupil for high need districts, and $3 per pupil in low need districts; however, fifty percent of all districts are considered high need districts. Furthermore, objective setting and test selection applies to 12 grades, not four, both to promote continuity from grade level to grade level, but also because of the attention placed on the idea of "one year below grade level." With monitoring costs of $200,000, these figures total to $11 million statewide. Again, Chicago is considered a low need district with respect to test development needs. If criterion-referenced tests double local objective and test selection costs, statewide costs rise to $19 million.

High cost estimates assume that the state would require each student to take an achievement test selected by the state and purchased every year to insure test security and up-to-date norms. The test would be given by external monitors. Using a conservative $15 per pupil estimate for eight grade levels, 2nd and 3rd, 5th and 6th, 7th and 8th, and 9th and 10th, yields $18 million. Adding $9 million for local objectives setting and $1 million for reporting efforts brings costs to $28 million. Monitoring and state item banks would no longer be needed without local variation in test selection, and with a test that guaranteed security.

2. Student Retention/Remediation

The Illinois Commission recommends that the state require districts to test students in the 3rd, 6th, 8th and 10th grades for proficiency in reading, math, and language arts. Annual assessments would be encouraged. The definition of proficiency implies the utilization of standardized tests. Students would be retained if performing more than one year below "grade level." Though retention could be overridden by teacher judgment for students performing no more than 6 months below the acceptable proficiency level, services of a "remedial" nature would be provided for students performing below proficiency levels. The Illinois Project for School Reform endorses the principles of these student promotion policies. The Illinois State Board of Education has remained silent regarding promotion and retention issues. While urging that districts assess student outcomes, the ISBE does not call specifically for standardized testing or for a statewide definition of academic proficiency. "The Group," a consortion of large city school districts, endorses only the general idea of testing and also remains silent on the issue of correcting promotion to test scores. The Chicago Teachers Union wants state-required testing and remedial services for all students performing below "proficiency levels," but fails to define proficiency level.

The Governor proposed the same basic retention standards as the Illinois Commission, but does not specify any special remedial funds for the retained students. Instead, a reading initative and a math and science initative are proposed. The Math initative involves $20 million for upgrading math and science equipment, but nothing focusing specifically on remediation. The reading initative provides $30 million for reading specialists, teacher aides, and summer remedial programs distributed through the Chapter 2 distribution formula, which is based on enrollment and poverty counts. Another $8 million would go to books and printed material through the same distribution formula, and $500 thousand to computer assisted reading instruction. Finally, #3.5 million would go to a voucher program to fund inservices on reading at the local level.

Under Chapter 2 programs, federal legislation consolidated 42 federal programs in the early 1980s. The distribution formula weights enrollment 70 percent and Chapter 1 eligibles 30 percent. Essentially, each disadvantaged student gets about three times the allocation for a non-disadvantaged student.

The Citizens Schools Committee (1982) would settle for uniform promotion and placement standards. They recommend remedial services and "catch-up centers" at each school.

Background

The genesis for the rather specific promotion policies outlined above lies in the general reaction to "social" promotion. The high cost of remediation has also made in-grade retention an increasingly popular educational alternative (Educ. Week, April 18, 1984). An extra year in school probably costs much more than remediation, but the cost is less visable. A Nation at Risk contained recommendations that would have academic progress and instructional needs guide promotion, rather than rigid adherence to age." The report also urged standardized achievement testing to identify the need for both remediation and accelerated work. At least four states allow districts to use competency tests as a basis for promotion to high school.

Much remedial education was once funded through federal compensatory education. The recent federal financial cutbacks put many specialized teachers (particularly reading teachers), administrators, and coordinators back into the regular classroom. The packaging of new promotion policies with the tendant call for remedial services can be expected to create many new jobs.

At the elementary level, Chicago generally promotes most students, but has taken several steps to match instruction to tested ability. Though a subject of much controversy, mastery learning seeks to individualize and sequence the math and reading instruction to criterion-referenced tests of student achievement. Frequently, students from two grade levels, but similar abilities, are combined in a single classroom for one or more subjects. Under the High School Renaissance program, students will be able to count remedial course work only as electives. An extension of the mastery learning, reading and mathematics program to the high school level is planned.

A number of big cities have changed promotion policies. In 1981, when budget cuts forced the cancellation of summer school where many students made up enough work to advance to the next grade, St. Paul failed to promote a large number of students. Though headlines read, "Abandoning Social Promotion," the St. Paul School Board agreed in principle to devise an individualized plan for each retained student, where promotion would be based on test scores and other quantifiable criteria (Educ. Week, May 2, 1984).

New York recently reversed promotion policies that repeatedly held back failing students and threatened to create a special high school track for them. Approximately 20,000 students had been in a "nonmatriculating" status in which they could attend high school but would be ineligible for a regular diploma. The new plan offers extensive remedial help where students can graduate after passing the required state competency tests.

Effectiveness

Most research criticizes the wholesale retention process. Holding back students works poorly when students repeat the same subject matter with the same instructional methods. Of far more importance, according to Frederic Medway (Educ. Week, April 18, 1984), professor of psychology at the University of South Carolina, are accountability and adequate remedial programs. According to Medway, research shows that among students with the same achievement levels and socioeconomic backgrounds, 65 percent of those promoted do better than the average retained student. This research also tends to show that little psychological damage accompanies retention, little educational benefit extends past the 6th grade, and in-grade retention is least likely to benefit students with special learning problems. A North Carolina study indicates that students retained in first grade carry reading achievement gains through the second grade, while students taking four years to finish third grade scored about the same as students taking only 3 years (Educ. Week, Dec. 4, 1983).

Some research supports the effectiveness of compensatory education. A study conducted by the Educational Testing Service compares national scores of 1980 high school seniors with the scores of 1972 high school seniors. Even with all background variables held constant, service for blacks and disadvantaged students improved more than white students, Federal and state compensatory education programs was the principal explanation for this study's finding.

Elsewhere, effectiveness of federal compensatory education spending is frequently criticized. Walberg (1985) insists that small and infrequent achievement gains were seldom sustained over the summer and no sustained gains have been detected. Furthermore, Chapter I programs often interfered with the effectiveness of schools and exacerbated the problems of the intended beneficiaries. Kirst and Jung (1980) found that a substantial portion of funds never reached poor children. Mullin and Summers (1983) identified only 28 valid evaluations containing program costs and achievement test results among 5,000 reports and articles on Chapter I. Other criticisms aimed at Chapter I efforts include: 1) creation of a specialized bureaucracy at state and local levels, 2) segregation of students by intellect, race, language and poverty status (who, once labeled, usually require more intensive and expensive services), 3) difficulty of concentrating eligible students for viable services, and 4) administrative complexities and classroom teaching interference associated with pull-out programs.

Cost of Remedial Education

Nationwide, retention figures in elementary schools range from 12 to 30 percent (Educ. Week, April 18, 1984). A study done for the School District of Philadelphia, which is weighing a shift to achievement-basedpromotion in the elementary grades, indicated that retention rates would triple or quadruple under the proposed new policy (Educ. Week, April 11, 1984). Roughly one-fourth of Pennsylvania's 3rd, 5th and 8th grade public school students need remedial work in mathematics and reading (Educ. Week, Feb. 9, 1985). Approximately half, or 40,000 of these students, will enroll in new state-supported remedial programs. Local districts can opt to include students who currently receive special education or federally funded Chapter I services. The program will cost $24 million or about $600 per student, and the Governor is requesting $48 million for next year.

The $600 per pupil cost figure closely matches the resource cost model estimate for instructional costs for remedial education (col. 1, row 5a, Table A-1). Chicago costs of $679 per pupil are higher than the state average cost of $617 because Chicago teachers get paid more (see methodology chapter). Elementary costs exceed high school costs because the target case load for a pull-out program, 50 students, is much smaller than for an instructor who teaches 5 remedial classes of 20 students per day. Note that many students might take more than one remedial course at the high school level.

Program support costs involving specialized administrative personnel, curriculum materials, and psychological services could add substantially to costs. For a small district that hires a single remedial reading teacher, program support costs are negligible. For medium size districts (7-12 remedial teachers) with a fully developed compensatory education program, appropriate RCM support costs would add $221 per pupil for a target caseload of 50 students at the elementary level.

Potential Need for Remediation

The number of students needing remedial help in Pennsylvania, 25 percent, closely approximates the number of students achieving one year below grade level in Illinois. A number of studies show that Illinois students achieve at levels which correspond closely to national averages. Table A-2 shows the percentage of students performing one year below grade level, according to national norms, on the Gates-MacGinitie reading test for third grade and the Stanford achievement tests for 3rd, 4th, and 5th grades.

The following issues emerge, some of them illustrated in Table A-2, when using standardized tests to determine proficiency levels:

1) Almost by definition, a large proportion of students will always perform one year below grade level (or even two years below level at the higher grade).

2) Tests differ. The Gates-MacGinitie, for example, would classify fewer students as one year below grade level.

3) Test administration dates yield different norms. The Gates-MacGinitie finds fewer students below grade level in the fall than in the spring for second graders.

4) Fewer students will be one year below grade level in the early elementary grades because one year is a larger proportion of a student's schooling.

5) There are no industry-wide standards for reporting test scores as grade equivalents (the average student beginning fourth grade should have a grade equivalent of 4.1). The Stanford Diagnostic Test's green form reports that the average third grader had a G.E. of 3.5, the average 4th grader a G.E. of 4.2, and the average fifth grader a G.E. of 4.8 Fifth graders who take the green form, however, are not average fifth graders but slow reading fifth graders.

6) Because there is some tendency among all schools in a norming sample to teach to the test, norms are revised upwards over time by testmakers. Students appear to rank better on old test forms.

This brief description of test choice and test interpretation using standardized tests illustrates the complexity of defining an absolute measure of proficiency, such as one year below grade level. School districts could manipulate test age, test choice, subtest choice, the norming group, and the method of reporting norms to over- or under-define the population needing remedial services.

The number of students potentially retained in Chicago in 1984 would be much higher than for the remainder of the state. The average 2nd grader falls about .4 years below the national norms (about the 40th percentile) in reading but only slightly below average in math. Fifth graders were also about .4 years behind in reading and also half a year behind in mathematics. Chicago's 9th graders, however, score only in the 32nd percentile of national reading norms and the 28th percentile of national mathematics norms. Almost annually, Chicago's achieved test scores are challanged as inflated (eg. see Chicago Tribune, August 24, 1984) ad. The controversy played a role in last summers controversy over the superintendent.

Thus, about half of Chicago's 9th graders would be subject to retention and require remedial services under the proposed student promotion policies. About 37% of Chicago's elementary students fall one year below grade level according to test scores reported by the Chicago Board of Education.

Existing Cost Estimates

The Illinois Commission based the per pupil cost estimate on a $639 per pupil cost. The 1983-84 average cost for 135,000 Illinois students receiving Chapter I services. Under the calculations, 25 percent of regular education students in grades 4-12 would get services (305,917 pupils out of a total of 1,223,668 in grades 4-12). The 135,000 getting Chapter I services are subtracted, and new state costs of $109 million are reached. These costs would begin in 1986-87. The costs would likely be greater than this estimate. If 1983-84 costs of $639 grew 5 percent per year, the 1986-87 equivalent would be $740. Thus, a more accurate estimate is $126 million all other assumptions the same.

Cost Estimates of Reform

Potential costs of the proposed reforms regarding retention policies include both the cost of remediation and the additional cost of funding one or more extra years of schooling for retained students.

Remedial Costs. The following high, medium, and low cost estimates have been made:

	Illinois	Chicago
Low Cost	0	0
Low Cost (Governor)	$ 42,000,000	$ 17,506,000
Medium Cost	137,252,000	45,300,000
High Cost	180,958,000	61,288,000

Low cost estimates assume that existing remedial services are spread among more students and/or increased academic standards for promotion are circumvented by school districts. The Governors program estimates utilize all proposals in the reading initiative except the adult literacy program. Chicago's allocation includes $8,127,000 allocated through enrollment (at $19.33 per pupil), and $9,379,000 for 178,200 Title I eligible students (at $52.63 per pupil).

Medium cost estimates are based on the Pennsylvania plan, where all students, including high school students and those receiving existing remedial services, get special help after the 3rd, 6th, 8th, and 10th grades.

High cost estimates assume that 30 percent of all students statewide need remediation, but that 7.5 percent of elementary students already get remedial services (about 135,000 students) and another 5.0 percent get help for the learning disabled. Remediation needs are not keyed specifically to the 3rd grade test but to the general idea that about 30 percent of students are below grade level and will need help from year to year. The 30 percent figure would be a little less at lower grade levels at more at higher grade levels. In Chicago, 40 percent of students are assumed to need remediation, but 15 percent already get direct remedial services and another 3.0 percent get help as LD students. Per student costs are taken from Table A1, but high school instructional costs are assumed to be $0 since remedial classes generally substitute for other course work. High school remediation classes might add costs if students are forced to transfer from "regular" classes to the smaller basis classes. Students might also leave to substitute the basic classes for expensive electives.

Retention Costs. Retaining a student, while less expensive than remediation in the short run, adds an extra year of school at a cost of as much as $2,600 per pupil (the projected state average for 1985-86). Direct instructional costs, which exclude many costs that do not change with enrollment, for a regular elementary student, are about $1,500 for 1985 according to the RCM. If an additional 10 percent of students were retained for one year as a result of stricter promotion policies (and non dropped out earlier as an outcome), new direct instruction costs, at $1,500 per retained student would eventually total $255 million annually on a statewide basis.

Table A-1

Per Pupil Remedial Instruction Cost Estimates Based on the Resource Cost Model

	Elementary	High School
1. Class size/case load		
a. Minimum	50	75
b. Maximum	50	100
c. Target	50	50
2. Teachers	1.0	1.0
3. Non-personnel expenditures	$57	$13
4. Building space	300'	600'
5. Instructional cost for target size unit		
a. State	$617	$399
b. Chicago	679	439
6. Program support - high cost estimate for medium size district	$221	$111

Note: All cost figures are cost per pupil. High school cost figures are costs for one remedial class period per student. All Chicago costs are assumed to be 10% Chicago salary differential from state average higher than the state average, except program support costs.

Table A-2

Percent of Students One Year Below Grade Level

	Percentile Rankings	Grade Equivalent Tables
	(1)	(2)
1. Gates-MacGinitie, total score (Grade 3)		
a. October Norms	17%	17%
b. February Norms	24	24
c. May Norms	28	28
2. Stanford Diagnostic Test (green forms)		
a. Grade 3		
1. Auditory Vocabulary	N.A.	1
2. Auditory Discrimination	N.A.	27
3. Phonetic Analysis	N.A.	13
4. Structural Analysis	N.A.	21
5. Comprehension	N.A.	1
b. Grade 4		
1. Auditory Vocabulary	35	13
2. Auditory Discrimination	45	42
3. Phonetic Analysis	39	33
4. Structural Analysis	30	27
5. Comprehension	33	15
c. Grade 5		
1. Auditory Vocabulary	32	33
2. Auditory Discrimination	41	42
3. Phonetic Analysis	43	42
4. Structural Analysis	32	28
5. Comprehension	36	31

Note: N.A. = Not available. Column 1 represents the percentage of a given grade level scoring below the average student in the next lowest grade.

Cost Estimates of Reform

Potential costs of the proposed retention policy reforms include both the cost of remediation and the additional cost of funding one or more extra years of schooling for retained students.

Remedial Costs. The following high, medium, and low cost estimates have been made:

	Illinois	Chicago
1. High cost configuration (continuous)	$180,958,000	$61,288,000
2. Medium cost configuration (at transfer points)	137,252,000	45,300,000
3. Low cost configuration	0	0

High cost estimates assume that 30 percent of all students statewide need remediation, while 7.5 percent of elementary students already get remedial services and another 5.0 percent get help for the learning disabled. Fourty percent of Chicago students are assumed to need remediation, while 15 percent already get direct remedial services and another 3.0 percent get LD services. Per student costs are taken from Table A-1. High school instructional costs are assumed to be $0 since remedial classes generally substitute for other course work. Medium cost estimates are based on the Pennsylvania plan where all students, including high school students and those receiving existing remedial services, get special help after the 3rd, 6th, 8th, and 10th grades. Low cost estimates assume that existing remedial services are spread among more students and/or increased academic standards for promotion are circumvented by school districts.

Retention Costs. While less expensive than remediation in the short run, retention adds an extra year of school at a cost of as much as $2,600 per pupil (the projected state average for 1985-86). Direct instructional costs for a regular elementary student (which exclude many costs that do not change with enrollment) are about $1,500 for 1985 according to the RCM. If an additional 10 percent of students were retained for one year as a result of stricter promotion policies (and none dropped out earlier as an outcome), new direct instruction costs at $1,500 per retained students would eventually total $255 million annually on a statewide basis.

3. Dropout Reduction

Several trends suggest that Illinois' high school dropout population may rise. The educational reform movement influences curriculum changes that emphasize academics, reducing popular electives, and limiting access to vocational programs due to more rigorous academic requirements. The academic focus could accentuate the link between dropping out and limited English proficiency at the same time the economy and world politics continue to bring more language minority children to Illinois. Furthermore, evidence shows that CETA's replacement, the Job Training and Partnership Act (JPTA) has notoriously precluded service to high school dropouts (Educ. Week, Jan. 23, 1985).

Cognizant of these implications, many policymakers and educational reform advocates suggest that all local districts provide programs for potential dropouts and expand options for students with "chronic adjustment problems." The label "at-risk students" applies to this group, a more narrow definition than the one used by many national groups (e.g., the Children's Defense Fund) to describe all poor, minority, and low achieving students. The Illinois Commission endorses both ideas. Specifically, youths age 16-18 would be allowed to take the General Educational Development (GED) exam, and part-time options involving community college work, adult education, and vocational education would be encouraged. The ISBE proposes expanding education options for "at-risk" youth in conjunction with their call for raising mandatory school attendance to age 18. The ISBE also wants to increase funding of the existing Truants Alternative Program presently funded at $1.1 million to $2.6 million for FY86. The Chicago Teachers Union endorses the idea of requiring local districts to develop programs for dropout-prone youth, but opposes plans, such as proficiency examinations, that would substitute for regular classroom coursework. The CTU also wants better articulation between elementary schools and high schools as a result of the increased high school academic standards. This improved coordination is implicitly directed at the dropout problem and the new burdens placed on elementary schools resulting from increased academic standards for high school admittance. The Illinois Project for School Reform failed to address the high school dropout issues.

The Governor's Program addresses the dropout problem in the violence and vandalism section. The local School Report Card system (see the student testing section of this report) would require a Dropout Reporting Section, and an ISBE technical unit would work with the "worst districts." Approximately 60 alternative schools for students with serious discipline problems would be developed with reimbursement through the general state aid formula with local districts paying for part of each placement. Regional programs in Macon and Livingston counties are models. The proposed appropration for alternative schools, if any, is buried in a $13.2 million figure that includes expansion of technical assistance to schools from the Illinois Department of Law Enforcement and a series of pilot programs funded to enhance the self-image of children.

Scope of Problem

On the national level, the connection between dropping out and educational reform has just begun. Former U.S. Secretary of Education Terrence Bell swept the problem away by insisting that by making courses more academically challenging would cause the dropout rate to decline. Few states have included programs for at-risk students on their reform agenda. One proposal in Florida would provide funds to allow some high school teachers to free one period a day to counsel 30 dropout-prone youth (Educ. Week, April 18, 1984). Louisiana's Governor recently recommended alternative curriculums for the non-college bound and a gradual phase-in of increased academic standards (Educ. Week, April 18, 1984). On the whole, however, response to the dropout problem centers on increased use of diagnostic testing and remedial education.

Statewide. According to ISBE data (Compulsory Attendance Mandate, 1983), the Illinois attrition rate (the ratio of senior enrollment in June to fall freshmen enrollment 4 years earlier) ranged between 24.1 and 26.5 percent for the graduating classes of 1977-81. The annual dropout rate (does not include death, extended illness, early graduation, or transfer to another school system) over the same period ranged from 5.6 percent to 6.2 percent of high school enrollment. The annual number of dropouts closely corresponds to the numbers predicted by attrition rates.

The Chicago Panel on Public School Finance has recently released a major, longitudinal study, Dropouts From In Chicago Public Schools (April, 1985). This major review of student outcomes for the classes of 1982, 1983, and 1984 is the first revised accounting available for a major urban school system. With the cooperation of the Chicago Board of Education, and using computerized student information files, it tracked 100,000 students through their four year high school career.

The Panel found that the dropout rate from in Chicago public schools for per class of 1982 was 43%, with similar figures for 1983 and 1984. Hispanics head the highest dropout rate (47%), followed by Blacks (45%), Whites (35%), and Asians, who lend the lowest rate (19%). Half of all Chicago male students dropout, while just over a hint of females do. More significantly, 60% of all students one year average dropout. Two-thirds of all dropouts entered high school either missing reading scores or reading more than two years below grade level.

The Panel found that half of all dropouts from in Chicago schools enrolled at just a third of the city's schools. These 21 schools with the highest dropout rates were overwhelmingly inner city; 76% were Black, 18% Hispanic, and only 6% White. More than half of the entering students in these schools (56%) became dropouts. More than a third of the students were average when they enrolled at these schools. Seventy percent of the students entering these schools had missing or below normal reading scores. Thus, a major portion of the dropout prone students are concentrated in only a few of the city's schools. However, with 35% of all White students dropping out, it is clear that the dropout issue is not just a minority problem.

Strategies for Dropout Reduction

Economists generally give low marks to high school level dropout prevention programs based on cost effectiveness analysis. Weisbrod (1964) found that an intensive dropout prevention program in St. Louis, using intensive counseling and work study, had per enrollee of $580. However, with an eight percent success rate, the cost per student who didn't dropout rose to $7,300 and resulted in a negative return to society. Further adjustments by Ribich (1968) led to even lower estimates of net benefits. Weisbrod concluded that attitudes and motivation were too solidified at the high school age. Nevertheless, an extensive list of dropout prevention strategies exists:

1. More Counselors; Staff Development for Existing Staff. Research shows that school discipline, marriage, pregnancy, and lack of importance attributed to high school graduation are far more important reasons for dropping out than school work or English language difficulty (Educ. Week, April 18, 1984). Dropout-prone youth, unlike their peers who stay in school, communicate more easily with counselors than teachers (Michigan Department of Education, 1984). The National Commission on Secondary Education for Hispanics (1984) recently recommended that the number of guidance counselors must be increased and their sensitivity to the Hispanic Condition raised.

2. Staff Development for Teachers. Research shows that next to parents, helpful teachers provide the main reason for staying in school, and that dropouts are much less likely than other students to feel comfortable with teachers (Michigan Department of Education, 1984). Educational reforms may exacerbate poor relationships between teachers and dropout-prone youth as the academically inclined receive more attention, and as teacher training institutions increasingly emphasize subject matter orientation among new teachers.

3. Identification of Dropout-Prone Youth. Early identification can improve the targeting of dropout-prevention programs. Several indications identify potential dropouts, such as interschool mobility and excessive absence. For language minority students, such information must be carefully interpreted in the context of the labor market their parents face.

4. Special Curriculums. Special curriculums may help some segments potential dropouts. For example, the National Commission on Secondary Education forHispanics (1984) noted that, "Strategies designed to improve the English proficiency of students who already speak English differ from those designed for non-English speaking students."

5. Nonbiased Test Interpretation and Program Placement. Inservice training for counselors and support staff can help prevent biased overplacement of dropout-prone students in remedial and general education curricula. Many assessment instruments lose their desirable psychometric properties when administered to non-native speakers of English and disadvantaged populations. Talented individuals can end up in dead-end curriculums. Conversely, the ability of many language minority youth to speak "street English" often covers up the need to develop the more cognitively demanding aspects of the English language needed for academic success.

6. Develop Cooperative Support Services. These arrangements with community agencies and institutions to provide tutoring, enrichment, and counseling for dropout-prone youth are yet another strategy to fight dropping out.

The Chicago Dropout Reduction Task Force (1984) identified a number of existing programs for potential dropouts and out-of-school youth including the Industrial Skills Center (for student reentry), occupational high school programs, the ESL program, Adult Day Centers, schools for girls with special needs, and a variety of other special programs such as the Urban Youth, Outpost, and Quadrate programs. The Task Force also released the following "cost" recommendations for reducing the dropout rate:

1.	13 school reentry centers	$1,950,000
2.	Increase alternative programs for dropout-prone youth	(not determined)
3.	Inservice	10,000
4.	Identify dropout-prone youth, 4th through 6th grade, provide programs	(not determined)

5.	Add attendance improvement/dropout prevention coordinator in 20 high schools	750,000
6.	30 job placement centers for intern-type work study students grades 7-12	1,500,000
7.	Peer tutoring and counseling	(not determined)
8.	Reduce student:counselor ratio to 300:1 (113 new counselors)	4,000,000
9.	Make schools safer and more	(not determined)
10.	Three pilot programs in high schools	270,000
	Total Determined Costs	$8,480,000

The state directs its attention towards dropout-prone students in the Truant Alternative Program (TAP). Contracts are awarded to public and private agencies providing alternative education for truants. During fiscal year 1984, $1,000,000 in contracts were awarded to 16 agencies, principally Educational Service Regions. The Chicago Board of Education received $185,000. In 1982-83, costs ranged from $86 to $1,265 per pupil and averaged $250 (Reference Note 1, p. 19). The State Superintendent proposes to increase TAP funding to $2.6 million level for 1985-86 in conjunction with additional requirements for ESR participation.

Illinois allows several educational options for at-risk students. Many local districts have evening courses, summer courses, and other programs in out-of-school settings. The state also allows at least four state-supported options (Compulsory Attendance Mandate, 1983) -- adult education programs, the GED testing program, experimental programs, and course credit for various experiences. A total of 117,000 students were enrolled in adult education in 1982-83, of which 30,000 were between the ages of 16 and 20. Local districts reported that 112,000 individuals could not be accommodated due to a lack of financial resources. In most cases, one must be 18 to take the GED tests in Illinois. Only about two dozen students received the GED at age 16 or 17.

Illinois Commission's Cost Estimates

Cost estimates performed by the State Board of Education for the Illinois Commission (Reference Note 1) produced the following results:

1.	GED instruction and testing for 16-18 year olds	$1.5 to 2.5 million
2.	Local district "at-risk" student programs	14.5 million
3.	Optional education for dropout-prone students	7.8 to 15.5 million

The Illinois Commission published the minimum cost estimates of $23.8 million. The bulk of GED costs assume that 2,700 to 4,500 students (out of a dropout population of about 30,000 to 35,000 students) need GED instruction at a cost of $645 per pupil. Based on RCM instructional configurations, and excluding program administration costs, this would provide each student with, at most, the equivalent of approximately two year-long high school courses. The local dropout prevention component of the costs estimates would apply only to 9th and 10th graders. If 20 percent were "at-risk", 58,000 would be served based on Fall 1983 enrollments. Applying a cost of $250 per student -- the average cost of students served in the Truants Alternative Program in 1982-83 -- results in the $14.5 million figure.

The optional education cost estimates depend upon a variety of complex assumptions: primarily, that 6,750 to 13,500 (25 to 50 percent of dropouts) would take advantage of such programs. If 25 percent attended full time and 75 percent part-time, 510-1,010 teachers would be needed. At a cost of $15,225 per teacher, the figure of $7.8 to 15.5 million is reached.

Some of these costs could be sharply underestimated. The freshmen to graduate attrition rate is about 25 percent and that many at-risk youth who presently graduate would be in dropout prevention programs. Furthermore, dropout prevention programs should cover juniors and seniors. The teacher salary figure of $15,225 is less than half of our calculation of the salary and benefits of the average teacher in Illinois ($33,000 for 1985-86). On the other hand, the enrollment figures may be optimistic. Many students drop out as freshmen and sophomores, especially since many potential dropouts enter high school over age. Optional educational enrollments in particular may be exaggerated since compulsory education to age 18 would probably not even keep 25 percent of dropouts in school for a junior and/or senior year (see compulsory attendance section).

Reform Cost Estimates

In this section, we pursue three different strategies for estimating the costs of local programs for dropout-prone youth. In addition, we indicate the increased costs associated with successful dropout reduction. The costs of optional education programs, other than those that might be part of the local dropout prevention program, are not considered. These options already exist, for the most part, and without an increase in the compulsory age of schooling, there is little reason for their utilization to increase substantially.

	State	Chicago
High Cost	$31,510,000	$18,658,000
Medium Cost (Florida Plan)	25,772,000	16,905,000
Medium Cost (Chicago Plan)	21,550,000	13,170,000
Low Cost	0	0

These cost estimates depend on the assumption that 115,000 dropout-prone youth receive services, of which 63,000 are served in Chicago (freshmen: 40,000 in state, 27,000 in Chicago; sophomores: 35,000 in state, 19,250 in Chicago; juniors: 25,000 in state, 13,750 in Chicago; seniors: 15,000 in state, 8,250 in Chicago). This compares to an expected attrition of 33-35,000 students on a statewide basis, and 20,000 in Chicago. The numbers are over inclusive because not all dropout-prone youth drop out.

High Cost Estimate. These estimates used the $250 average per pupil cost for the Truant Alternative programs in 1983 and raised the figure to $274, an increase of 6 percent a year. Applied to 115,000 dropout-prone youth results in the $31.5 million figure. Chicago costs of $295 per pupil (i.e., 10 percent more costly than the rest of the state) multiplied by 63,250 dropout-prone youth is $18.6 million.

Medium Cost Plan (Florida Model). The proposed Florida plan (Educ. Week, April 18, 1984) would pay for one extra class period per day for a teacher to counsel 30 dropout-prone youth. If 115,000 identified students received this service, 766 full-time-equivalent teacher at a state average salary of $33,645 would add $25.7 million to state education costs. In Chicago, 422 FTE teachers at an average cost of $40,000 to serve 63,250 identified youth would cost $16.9 million.

Medium Cost Plan (Chicago Model). If $70,000 (cost per high school of the proposed pilot programs) for programs at 67 high schools were added to the $8,480,000 in determined costs outlined above, full-cost implementation would equal $13.2 million. If per pupil costs statewide were 10 percent lower than in Chicago, an equivalent plan for the state would cost $21.5 million.

Low Cost Plan. The zero cost estimate assumes that aprogram for at-risk youth would be created through the local committee structure to formalize existing efforts, however minimal, as necessary to meet state requirements for a "plan."

Direct Classroom Costs of a Successful Dropout Prevention Program. On a statewide basis, if a proposed program successfully kept 3,500 students (about 10 percent of the actual attrition rate) in school for an average of two years longer, the costs per successful retention of a $25 million state assault on dropouts would be $7,143. If a successfully retained student took basic English, basic math, general science, social science, art, and a study hall, direct classroom costs in 1985-86, according to the RCM model, would be $1,625 statewide, or $1,787 in Chicago. Even under these conservative assumptions, new state costs would equal $11.5 million statewide and $7.5 million in Chicago.

4. Curriculum and Academic Standards

The Illinois State Board of Education's "outcomes approach" (Annual Report, 1984) simply stated, calls for:

- Identifying what the state expects
- Allowing districts to organize their instructional program to achieve these outcomes
- Holding districts accountable for student learning

Proposed state expectations are very general (e.g., read, comprehend, interpret and evaluate, and use written material; add, substract, multiply and divide whole numbers, fractions and decimals; acquire skills useful in leisure activities). The state would establish criteria and guidelines for the local development of specific outcome statements and provide technical assistance. Accountability is obtained by requiring local districts to use a variety of tests and measurement tools keyed to local outcome objectives. The assessment data would be made public (see the student testing section of this report, while the Illinois Commission endorsed this approach, it also recommended a rigorous state-mandated testing program, seemingly geared to national-norm standardized achievement tests. The Governor views academic standards in the context of accountability and proposes a statewide testing program while ignoring the local objective setting exercise. School curricula would be upgraded by a new state-financed initiative in reading, a math-science equipment program, and a "flagship" residential math-science academy. The CTU, while demanding that curriculum teaching, textbooks, and reading programs be left to local decision-makers, also wanted state mandated programs to encourage reading.

The Illinois Project for School Reform essentially follows the outcomes approach of the ISBE by proposing that all districts submit curriculum plans to the State that would include specific outcomes, including plans by which they would be evaluated. Local districts would be encouraged to adopt one of the following plans (in the preliminary report, a choice among the 3 would have been required):

1) A "core curriculum" of English (4 years), foreign language (2 years), mathematics (2 years), computer technology (.5 years), science (2 years), social science (3 years), health and physical education (2 years), art or music (1 year), seminar on work (.5 years), and community service (.5 years).

2) A "competency curriculum" that would use competency testing as the focus of objective setting and evaluation.

3) An "integrated themes curriculum" such as the Paidea proposal.

In addition to these major reform proposals, the Illinois Board of Higher Education (IBHE) is instructing the 12 public universities it governs to increase course work requirements for admission to four years of English and three years of math, science, and social science (the IBHE does not govern private institutions, and exempted the 39 junior colleges from this ruling).

The Citizens Schools Committee (1982), in addition to demanding uniform graduation standards, proposed a certificate of Attendance for those students that continue to participate in class but fail to meet graduation standards.

Background

Nationally, the most popular school reforms over the past two years focuses on curriculum standards, particularly high school graduation requirements. Increasing standards usually can be done rapidly and costs state governments little. Furthermore, graduation requirements have often been so minimal that they can be increased without seriously affecting established practices or curriculum. National data from the High School and Beyond Study, however, shows that only about 38 percent of the high school class of 1980 pursued an academic (i.e. college bound) course of study (in 1972, the figure was 46 percent), even though one-half go to college (Education Week, September 26, 1983). Roughly 85 percent take no foreign language and 20 percent take no science. At the 11th and 12th grade, half take no math or science. In the 1972 National Longitudinal Survey, 50 percent of students thought that schools should put more emphasis on academics, but by 1980 in the High School and Beyond Study, the percentage rose to 72 percent.

In response to low curriculum standards illustrated by the High School and Beyond data, the Commission on Excellence in Education, in A Nation At Risk recommended 4 years of English, 2 years of a foreign language, and 3 each of math, science, and social studies. Prior to 1984, Illinois had no minimum requirements for these subjects except 3 years of English, and only one year of social science (Instructional Mandates, 1982). Specific requirements existed, however, for health, P.E., career education, safety education, consumer education, and in about 20 other discrete areas including humane treatment of animals and truth and honesty in government. The Carnegie Foundation's High School report (Boyer, 1984) matched the standards proposed in A Nation at Risk, but proposed only 2 years of math, .5 years more social studies, and 1.5 years of employment/community service. The Illinois Project's core curriculum option closely matches the Carnegie Commission's recommendations but increases the .5 year health requirement to 2 years of health and P.E., adds .5 years for career education, and demands only .5 years for community service.

During the 1983 session, the Illinois legislature enacted specific state requirements for graduation in math (2 years), science (1 year), and increased the social studies requirement to 2 year. Students must now take a year of art, music, vocational education, or a foreign language. These changes affected Chicago only in the mathematics area because so many students take remedial math or pre-algebra, subjects that do not count as high school level mathematics.

Though most of the major reform commisions/task forces recommended that colleges raise admission standards, as proposed by the IBHE, this reform generates the most hostility from the American public. In the spring of 1984, only 22 percent of the American public favored raising college admissions requirements -- the lowest percentage of any reform studied in the Gallop Survey (Phi Delta Kappan, Sept., 1984).

Even though the National Center for Educational Statistics found that only 1.8 percent of the nation's 1982 graduates met all of the curriculum recommendations proposed in A Nation at Risk (Educ. Week, Sept. 28, 1983), the same data base indicated that the nation's students did not fall too far behind these standards. The average U.S. student had .1 extra year of social science, and fell short of the English minimum by .2 years, the math minimum by .4 years, the foreign language minimum by .9 years, and the science minimum by 18 years. The average 1982 U.S. high school graduate would have met every requirement established by the Illinois legislature in 1983. Only about a quarter of 1982 college-bound high school seniors would meet the standards of the Illinois Board of Education.

The High School and Beyond data shows that 93 percent of 1980 high school graduates in the United States and 89 percent in Illinois, completed one year of math in the last three years of high school (Instructional Program Mandates, 1982). Presuming that ninth graders must take mathematics, then almost 9 of 10 Illinois high school graduates had 2 years of math. The same study revealed that 90 percent of 1980 high school graduates in the U.S. had one year of science in grades 10-12, and 54 percent had completed 2 years. In Illinois, 86 percent of graduates complete one year of science in grades 10-12, and 48 percent finished two years. Presuming that all ninth graders take a year of science, then about half of Illinois seniors complete high school with 3 years of science. Thus, the principal difficulty imposed on students seeking to enroll in IBHE institutions is the three year science requirement. Despite the IBHE request, The University of Illinois, not surprisingly, changed requirements only to two years of science. General science, however, cannot count towards the requirement. Districts may expand their science offerings, but students can also make up for science deficiencies at junior colleges, institutions not under the auspices of the Illinois Board of Higher Education.

The State Board's "outcomes" approach, a policy initiative born 5 or 6 years ago when local school officials fretted about paper work and the burden of state mandates, runs counter to the current reform movement. In 1978, the Board tried unsuccessfully to pass minimum competency guidelines including a minimum-competency test. Despite the rather minimal course work standards imposed by the Illinois legislature, former state superintendent Donald Gill reiterated the opposition of the ISBE to the new course requirements saying that, "It probably won't hurt, and it probably won't help. I just hope it does not deter us from setting quality standards for what students should know, and be able to do as a result of their schooling."

The ISBE proposal generated much reaction at of 10 hearings held around the state. Many educators said the standards were too vague, too narrow, or too difficult to implement and test (Champaign-Urbana News Gazette, May 2, 1984). Supporters of vocational education, consumer education, home economics, and the foreign languages typically oppose the outcome statements because these subjects are left out. For reasons related reasons to potential loss of jobs for this their members, Illinois' two major unions, who supported the 1983 course work legislation, oppose the elimination of specific course requirements. The standards are either so low as to be without value, or so high that many students would be forced out of school (Carbondale Southern Illinoisan, March 28, 1984). Some argue that though the plan gives more freedom, it also puts the responsibility at the local level (Vernon Hills Herald, May 9, 1984). The Illinois PTA wondered, "Are we moving forward with these statements or restating old statements in a new way," (Southtown Economist, May 2, 1984). They felt that districts may be able to reduce curriculum requirements. According to the Arlington Heights Herald (April 1, 1984), some will dismiss the statements as "educationese." The Southern Illinoisan claimed the outcome goals are examples of the right goals but the wrong methods, and urges more graduation requirements, state-enforced standards, and uniform accountability.

Effectiveness

Many respected scholars argue that changing course requirements provides a low-cost reform making for lasting change. Kirst (1983) argues that the new admission standards to public higher education in California, "Will effectively prevent able students from frittering away their high school years with light course loads." The changes, he argues, quickly change high school curricula. Since admission requirements involving course work are low cost, easily monitored, and backed by a powerful constituency, he believes they should be durable.

The principal argument against changing course requirements, that requiring certain courses does not ensure learning, also provides the basis for the State Board's outcomes approach. As New Trier High School Superintendent Roderick Bickert argues, "Our district has only a one year science requirement, but nearly all of our graduates have five or six years of science," (Educ. Week, Sept. 28, 1983).

Though probably among the least expensive reforms, both approaches to increasing standards still depend partly on resources. With respect to the proposed ISBE fine arts requirement, a Morgan Park High School teacher said, "As an idea, it's wonderful, but we don't have a textbook that deals with art appreciation and art history," (Chicago Tribune, March 23, 1984). Rockford's Board of Education approved tougher high school course loads such as two years of math instead of one, four years of English instead of three, one semester of computer science, and upgrading the foreign language area (Register Star, Oct. 25, 1983). All the changes, except the state-required mathematics change, were contingent on passing a 60 mil property tax hike. The Dixon Illinois high school, whose most famous graduate is President Reagan, has been operating only five class periods a day due to seven consecutive referendum defeats. With P.E. taking up one period, little room remains in the 4 period day to increase course requirements. Restricted funding for Chicago's High School Renaissance programs has led to granting credit to remedial courses as electives. Without this provision, students would need to take many more courses to graduate, thus necessitating the hiring of more teachers.

Another financial concern centers on personnel. A report issued by the National Science Teachers Association (Educ. Week, April 8, 1984) concludes that increasing math and science requirements has basically resulted in the reassignment of teachers, who once taught electives, to math and science courses, subjects they are unqualified to teach. Florida tripled science requirements, resulting in vastly increased class size and a severe shortage of equipment (Educ. Week, Aug. 13, 1983). Governor Thompson's proposed math-science program, with proposed funding of $32 million over four years, could help the situation in Illinois. Furthermore, the math-science teacher shortage began well in advance of the current reform movement. In some states, reform spurred a foreign language teacher shortage. Language class enrollments rose 70 percent in Oklahoma between 1980 and 1983 as a result of changes in university admissions requirements, but the number of teachers rose only 12 percent.

The extent of the math-science teacher shortage in Illinois, as in most of the Midwest and Northeast, is probably less than for the remainder of the country; however, few good estimates exist. During 1983-84, the ISBE found only 146 unfilled teaching positions in all fields (Reference Note 2). A teacher scholarship program has helped fund the retraining of 70 teachers a year statewide for high school mathematics and science positions. Considerable voluntary retraining certainly exists, which is often subsidized by local districts. The ISBE considers the bilingual and special education teacher shortage to be greater, partly because retraining is more extensive, and wants to include these specialties in the Teacher Scholarship Program (Reference Note 2).

One reason for the discrepancy between the low number of unfilled vacancies in Illinois and the widely publicized math-science teacher shortage is that most professional associations have a stricter definition of "qualified" than state certificate requirements. A high school English teacher in Illinois needs only 20 semester hours of retraining (4-6 courses) to teach mathematics. All science fits into 3 types of teaching certificates: biological science, physical science, and general science. Physical education teachers often need only one course or two courses to meet the biological science or the general science requirement. Chemistry and physics teachers only need 10 semester hours in chemistry or physics (plus some other requirements in the physical science area). General science teachers need not have any courses involving laboratory work, and since the state presently requires only one year of science, all state requirements can be met with general science teachers, those most likely to teach the students who once didn't take even a single science course. Thus, it is possible that hundreds of retrained teachers could technically meet state requirements but still fall below the standards of the professional associations.

California enacted graduation requirements almost identical to those of the 1983 Illinois legislature, except that two years of science are required, not one, and general science cannot be one of the two years. New science requirements proved most difficult to meet because of added costs, according to the California Tax Foundation (1985). Some superintendents said that it would cost $25,000 to remodel a single classroom. Little evidence showed that higher graduation requirements replaced electives and vocational courses. Virtually every district surveyed indicated that the new requirements did not change the number of persons hired but influenced priorities in hiring according to subject matter. None of the 25 districts surveyed reported laying off teachers to "pay" for new teachers--a provision specifically allowed in the State's new teacher tenure laws. Most, but not all, districts felt that the new requirements would have little effect on teacher shortages. Other identifiable costs resulting from the new requirements (textbooks, supplies, retraining costs, administrative overhead, etc.) are eligible for state reimbursement, and most districts intended to file for reimbursement.

Reform Cost Estimates

Though we estimate that increasing graduation requirements probably costs less than the state testing program needed to back up an outcomes approach, both strategies reside among the least expensive reforms. Note that the testing estimates also appear in the student testing and assessment section in this report and should not be counted twice.

	Illinois	Chicago
1. Low Cost	0	0
2. Low (IBHE) -- one time cost	$ 634,666	$ 96,158
3. High Cost (Governor) -- one time cost	32,000,000	8,000,000
4. Medium Cost (Illinois Commission)	3,766,000*	960,000*
5. High Cost (Adequate standardized achievement testing program)	11,260,000*	1,500,000*

* Counted in Testing Section Also

Low Cost Estimates. Given the past years of work by the ISBE, the cost of establishing state learning expectations would be minimal. To utilize the standards to promote increased standards of instruction necessitates more substantial costs for a testing program.

Low Cost (IBHE) Estimate. This approach estimates the one-time retraining cost for personnel to teach courses newly demanded by prospective college entrants to IBHE institutions. According to Illinois data in the High School and Beyond study (Instructional Program Mandates, 1982), 40 percent of the 1980 graduating class did not have three years of math. Assuming that 15 percent of the graduating class without three years of math wanted to attend college -- less than half of the group without three years of math -- perhaps only about half of this figure, or 7.5 percent would attend IBHE institutions. For the next several years, the average high school class will contain about 130,000 students; therefore, about 9,750 more students a year will need a year of math. Using a target class size of 25 students a year (a figure drawn from the RCM model) and a five class period teaching schedule, 78 additional full-time-equivalent teachers would be needed. Assuming that all needs are met through retraining at a cost of $3,588 per teacher, the 1984-85 average of public and private college tuition used to estimate appropriations for the Illinois Teacher Scholarship Program (Reference Note 2), $280,000 in retraining costs are incurred. Using same process in science area, where 52 percent of Illinois graduates do not have three years of science, yields retraining costs of $354,608. Chicago's share is based on the assumption that: 1) 20,000 students graduate each year, 2) 40 percent go to college, 3) 50 percent of the college bound did not have a third year high school math, 4) 75 percent of the college bound needed a second year of non-general science, and 5) one-third of the college bound seek to enroll directly in IBHE institutions. This generates a need for new math teachers and 16 new science teachers

High Cost (Governor) Estimate. The Governor calls for a $20.5 million appropriation during 1985-86 for the Math-Science Equipment Program, with $3 million, $6 million, and $3 million dollars over the following three years. Though part of the reason for the program is to upgrade existing inventories, the proposal is explicitly connected to increased math and science requirements passed by the 1983 legislature. The proposed funding appears quite generous for the latter purpose. According to the High School and Beyond data (Instructional Mandates, 1982), about 12 percent of Illinois graduates are short a course in high school math, thus necessitating about 625 new classes at 25 students per class. Equipment for a single math class is about $294 per year, according to the RCM, for State costs of about $184,000 on a continuing basis. Start-up equipment costs are higher and according to the California Tax Foundation (1985) study, classroom remodeling cost comprised the biggest new cost. But virtually all students took one year of science prior to the legislative enactment of the one year requirement. New IBHE equipment needs would add equipment costs of several hundred thousand dollars statewide, however.

The Governor's proposal raises many equity questions. Not only is the proposed aid generous, but the money would not be distributed through an equalizing formula. Even worse, the matching provision (90 percent state/10 percent local) would put the poorest districts at a disadvantage in getting the equipment they probably need the most. Chicago's share is calculated as 25 percent of the $32 million. Even though Chicago only graduates 15 percent of the average statewide graduating class, the math and science needs of Chicago are much greater due to the large number of remedial math courses that no longer count for graduation.

Medium and High Cost Testing Estimates. The medium cost figures correspond to the costs for the testing program proposed by the Illinois Commission (Reference Note 1). The high cost figures reflect our best estimates of a fully adequate state testing program based on standardized achievement tests. See the student testing and assessment section of this report for a more complete description of these costs.

B. EDUCATIONAL METHODS

5. Instructional Mandates

In 1977, Governor Thompson focused attention on state mandates by appointing an *ad hoc* Committee on State-Mandated Programs. Ever since, the mandates issues have become a prominent part of Illinois' education politics. In September 1981, the Illinois State Board of Education approved a comprehensive study of all state mandates and conducted in-depth studies over the next two years on special education, bilingual education, driver education, physical education instructional program mandates, school records, immunization, transportation, compulsory attendance, and school day/year issues.

Many of these issues appear on the Illinois Educational Reform agenda; some receive attention in other sections of this report. For a variety of reasons, including superceding federal laws, *special education has been left off the reform agenda for the most part*. The ISBE is proposing legislation regarding birth-to-three centers, district of residence, and parents' role in evaluations. The ISBE has also introduced legislation to repeal the transportation mandate and to improve the immunization mandate. In this section, special attention is given to three mandates that figure prominently in Illinois education politics and have become topics of reform on a nationwide basis.

The Illinois Project for School Reform recommended the elimination of all existing mandates, except special education. This blanket statement fails to define mandates with precision. The Illinois Commission, while not using the term "mandates", called for full state funding of state requirements not part of the primary purpose of schooling. Since the primary purpose of schooling will not be defined or enacted into law until some time in the future, the status of various mandates remains uncertain under this proposal.

Despite leading the attack on state mandates, the ISBE avoids blanket statements about mandates. Specifically, the ISBE recommends that physical education be required only through 10th grade and not necessarily daily. It also recommends that driver education become an elective although districts would still get state funding for driver education. Student fees would be allowed for behind-the-wheel instruction, and districts would be allowed to engage in contracts with commercial driving schools for behind-the-wheel instruction.

The Illinois Commission supported the spirit of the ISBE proposal by recommending that contracts with private agencies be allowed for behind-the-wheel instruction and by recommendation that fees could be charged for instruction provided by the schools. Both the ISBE and the Illinois Commission would not allow districts to charge fees high enough to prohibit poor students from participation, though no specific provisions for this exception exist. However, Illinois law mandates that fees must be waived for low income students, therefore, these students cannot be excluded because of lack of fee payment. (The School Code, Chapters 122, 34-22).

The Illinois Commission also wants relaxation of physical education requirements to allow waivers in the 11th and 12th grade for: 1) academic classes needed for college enrollment, 2) remediation, and 3) participation in athletic programs. While characterizing physical education at the elementary level as a "throw-away subject," Chicago's proposed long range plan (Design for Excellence, 1984) takes the position that physical education, driver education, and other nonacademic courses should not be requirements at the expense of academic subjects.

The ISBE proposes that all districts provide transitional language programs for all limited-English-proficient (LEP) students, not just those students in districts with large numbers of LEP students. Local districts will be allowed more instructional freedom. In Chicago, however, the existing mandate would remain in effect for attendance centers with more than 20 students. All other major reform proposals remain silent on the specific issue of bilingual education. The Illinois Project for School Reform does not specifically exclude bilingual education from its blanket statement to throw out all mandates. While they do for special education.

Despite initiating interest in the mandates issues almost 10 years ago, none of the Governor's proposals deal with the various mandates issues including physical education, driver education, and bilingual education. The unions also left physical education, driver education, and bilingual education off their published reform agendas, though the IEA strongly supports the current physical education and driver education requirements. At the national level, the AFT once attacked bilingual education, primarily because it interferred with seniority-based layoffs but has since toned-down its opposition.

Backgound

Physical education and driver education fit into the national education reform movement as two among the many activities detracting from the academic focus of schools.

Bilingual education fits into the reform rubric less well. On the other hand, the Twentieth Century Fund's Task Force recommended that the federal government take all the money it spends on bilingual education and instead, spend it on teaching LEP children English. Such a statement requires many presumptions about the design and purpose of bilingual education. Most commission task forces remained silent on bilingual education. One reason is the predominance of bilingual education at the elementary level, while the major commissions focused on the high school. Secondly, bilingual education is more an approach to organizing instruction than a definition of course content. From a political perspective, the Republican party now courts the Hispanic vote. President Reagan, who threw out proposed new federal rules governing bilingual education his first week in office, has moderated his position on bilingual education.

The mandate studies, driver education and physical education mandates in particular, played a critical role in creating one of the major state reform commissions in Illinois. The Illinois mandates studies provide principal focus of the ISBE legislative initiatives, but, as Ben Polk, former Republican legislator argued, "There is no constituency to cut mandated programs," (Illinois Issues, March, 1984). During the 1984 session, the State Board's proposal to relax driver education and physical education requirements were buried in legislative subcommittee. Despite the State Board's opposition, the legislature also passed a measure to increase graduation requirements. After the two defeats, the ISBE was able to engineer the creation of the Illinois Commission on the Improvement of Elementary and Secondary Education, whose staff is provided courtesy of the ISBE, (Illinois Issues, March, 1984).

Physical Education

Due to a lack of physical fitness of armed forces' inductees during World War II, 1944 legislation mandated a minimum of 200 minutes of physical education a week (Physical Education Mandates, 1982). Of 46 responding states, 35 required physical education at the elementary level and 40 at the secondary level. Another three required physical education only through the 10th grade as proposed by the ISBE. To some degree, Illinois has the most stringent physical education mandate in the country, reducing the requirement to an elective after the 10th grade would put Illinois among the third states with the fewest requirement. Legislation introduced over the past three sessions included all of the reforms on this year's agenda with the exception of waivers for: 1) enrollment in expanded academic classes for college entrance requirements, and 2) remedial course work.

Ample evidence suggests widespread nonimplementation of requirements (Physical Education Mandates, 1982).

- -- Approximately 25 percent of high schools fail to provide scheduled activities each day.
- -- Health, driver education, first aid, recess, and organized athletics often substitute for physical education.
- -- In 1976-77, 40 percent of districts failed to comply with the mandates.
- -- In 1978-79, 100 formal waivers were granted by the state board.

In 1980, there was a total of 6,853 full-time physical education teachers in Illinois. Chicago's share of physical education teachers, 16 percent, falls well below Chicago's share of state enrollment. The RCM set the target class size of physical education classes at 28 in 7th and 8th grade and 35 in high schools, with maximums of 45 and 40 respectively. Except for study hall, physical education provides the least expensive school activity. Co-educational physical education has enabled districts to increase class size.

Driver Education

The current driver education mandate requires both classroom and behind-the-wheel instruction. Students must take the classroom portion. Anyone between 16 and 18 years old wanting a license must complete both parts. Nonstudents under age 25 and nonpublic school students may enroll.

The classroom portion of driver education has been mandated since 1941. The current mandate, established in 1967, links completion of approved courses to early licensing. In 1957, Illinois became the 15th state to authorize categorical funding for permissive driver education programs using driver license fees. By 1979-80, at least 26 states provided special state funding, and federal funds were used by at least 23 states including Illinois (Caracci, 1980). Federal funding is partly credited with Illinois' mandatory driver education provisions.

Driver license fees and a portion of fines levied for vehicle violations generated $14 million in state funding for driver education during 1984-85. Chicago receives $3 million. State funding levels doubled in 1983. The funding provides $18.11 per classroom student and $72.44 for each behind-the-wheel student. The RCM figures (updated to reflect

1985-86 costs) for appropriate classroom education are $265 at the target class size of 25, and behind-the-wheel costs should be $424 for a target caseload of 70 students.

The funds are not distributed on an equalizing basis, and low state funding levels influenced proposals to charge fees for behind-the-wheel instruction. Woodstock charges $40 per student (Woodstock Daily Sentinel, May 21, 1984), but the fee is supposed to be "incidental", and districts charging from $75 to $100 have been stopped.

The State Board began its investigation of driver education in 1981, before the mandates studies, and established the Board's basic intention to retain the classroom instruction portion of the mandate but not to require that local districts offer behind-the-wheel training. ISBE research found extensive use of driver education programs by nonpublic school students but not by out-of-school youth. The mandates study concluded that public school driver education is essentially an early licensing program, with an indeterminant safety record, and found no reason to require that certificated personnel teach behind-the-wheel driving. A study of accident rates in Connecticut, which demonstrated driver's education, found a significant decline in accidents, especially among teenagers, after the mandation. The Insurance Institute of America (1981), after several years of supporting public school driver education, now seeks its elimination as a measure to reduce the high number of accidents involving teenagers.

Bilingual Education

Illinois began funding bilingual education in 1971. In 1972, about 2,000 students were served in Chicago and 200 in the remainder of the state. The present bilingual education mandate, enacted in 1976, was modeled after the Massachusetts mandate, the first of its kind in the country. The mandate requires programs only at those attendance centers having 20 or more Limited English Proficiency (LEP) students with the same language background. Many voluntary programs also get state funding as do many at attendance centers with fewer than 20 LEP students in Chicago.

By 1980-81, about 27,000 students received services in Chicago, with another 8,700 in the rest of the state. During 1983-84, enrollment fell to 26,000 and 7,250 respectively. Of the estimated 17,000 unserved LEP students, only about 6,000 attend Chicago schools. In many instances, parents exercise their right to not enroll their child in bilingual education. Though all programs are governed by a single mandate, Chicago and the 70 or so downstate programs receive state support through two separate appropriations, which in 1984-85 amounted to $13.3 million and $4.4 million respectively. About $400,000 of the downstate appropriation funds a statewide resource center to provide technical assistance not only to state-mandated programs, but to all districts and teachers with LEP children.

The inconsistency between the State interest in equal opportunity and the 20 student limit provide the State board's primary rationale for expanding instruction to all LEP students. Provisions for allowing instructional flexibility are consistent with the ISBE's outcomes focus.

To some extent, relaxation of the mandates may have little effect on Illinois' largest districts since they are still bound to follow individually-negotiated "Lau" agreements with the federal government.

Despite the alleged interest in promoting equal opportunity, the bilingual community in Illinois generally opposed the proposed mandate changes for two reasons. First, it is argued that some districts would choose programs according to cost considerations or prejudicial beliefs about language learning, not educational criteria. The great weight given to local flexibility would make the monitoring of local programs impossible. Second, the fear of funding dilution emerged. In a time of financial stringency, the belief existed that no new money would be found for the LEP students previously not served. Additionally, the recommendations indicated a possible shift to a different funding mechanism -- one based on student counts rather than actual program costs. The concurrent Illinois State Board of Education school finance study contributed to these fears.

Indeed, the link to funding appears critical. Former Superintendent Gill's 1985-86 budget proposal included a $14 million price tag for expanded services to all LEP students (17,000 students x $836, the 1984-85 average full excess cost per pupil). Funding for these new costs and existing bilingual programs, however, was buried in the proposed Resource Cost Model funding formula. If, however, the mandate changes and funding remains the same, existing programs, including Chicago's, may lose substantial funds that might then be distributed around the state so thinly as to be ineffectual

It may also be inappropriate to simply count up unserved LEP students and multiply by the current average excess cost. First, downstate programs averaged excess costs of $1,060 per pupil are about $300 higher than in Chicago where optimal class size is easier to obtain (Reference Note 2). What works well in larger programs may not be appropriate in small programs. Downstate programs with state-funded transitional bilingual education average 40-50 students per attendance center. Within these districts, however, as many as 5,000 LEP students are excluded from transitional bilingual education due to low incidence of students speaking the same language and small LEP enrollments at a given attendance center. Districts without state-funded programs report an average of about 20 LEP students in the entire district. Instructional materials available for programs of fewer than 20 students are currently limited. Additionally, research studies show that start-up identification and pupil assessment costs range from 10 to 20 percent of program costs, materials from 5 to 10 percent, and staff development from 5 to 20 percent (citation to follow).

Second, substantial inaccuracy in the bilingual census data probably exists. Only districts with bilingual programs presently need state approval for their Procedure for Identifying Students of Limited English Proficiency. In 1979, the first year Procedures were reviewed, two-thirds of the districts with state-funded programs had inadequate or incomplete plans, thus necessitating a significant amount of technical assistance (Helmer, 1981). To serve all LEP students in the state, or to provide funding based on a count of LEP students, assessmentprocedures probably would have to be formalized in all 1,000 state school districts, not just the approximately 100 districts currently participating in the programs.

Third, compliance and remediation costs may rise substantially. Under proposed funding or mandate changes, the number of districts generating state funds from LEP students could triple or quadruple and downstate enrollments could rise by 10,000 students. State monitoring could become more difficult without a single instructional methodology on which to base evaluation. According to the professional literature, child-based formulas encourage more children to be served. Consequently labeling, testing, and assessment become more important in program monitoring, compliance efforts and remediation.

Reform Cost Estimates

Physical Education. Though one might expect unions to protect jobs by opposing the physical education mandate change, they really protect a particular type of teaching job since relaxation of physical education requirements would almost surely increase the need for teachers statewide. Physical education classes typically exceed the average class size and most other electives are more expensive to teach. The following estimates are based on these considerations:

	Illinois	Chicago
Low Cost (Illinois Commission)	$ 7,855,000	$2,641,000
Medium Cost (ISBE)	13,715,000	3,771,000

The medium cost plan assumes that 10 percent of students substitute remedial education for one year of physical education, that another 10 percent substitute athletics for one year of the present requirement,and that another 10 percent substitute courses for the college bound for 2 years of the current physical education requirement. According to the RCM, basic courses cost $135 in excess of physical education courses. If athletes substitute an equally-divided mixture of typical academic courses and basic electives, the cost is $105 per pupil in excess of physical education classes. If the college bound took a mixture of advanced science classes and advanced math classes, the cost increases to $182 per pupil over physical education. Based on a typical high school class of 130,000 students statewide, the $7.8 million figure is reached. Chicago calculations are reached through a similar process, except that 20 percent, rather than 10 percent, of students are assumed to substitute basic education for physical education.

The high cost estimate, based on the ISBE proposal to make physical education an elective after 10th grade, assumes that all students take one year less of high school physical education at a cost of $105.50 in excess of physical education classes (split evently between low cost regular courses and higher cost advanced/remedial courses).

Driver Education. Cost estimates for this mandate change predict a cost savings due to the discouragement of behind-the-wheel driving. Potential cost savings resulting from contractual relationships with commercial driving schools, if any, are not explored.

	Illinois	Chicago
Low savings configuration	-$ 5,230,000	-$2,365,000
High savings configuration	- 11,580,000	- 5,290,000

As many as 18,700 students statewide and 8,500 Chicago students could drop out of the classroom instruction component (the current difference between classroom and behind-the-wheel enrollments). According to the RCM, driver education courses cost about as much as the typical required high school course so there would be no added cost or cost savings.

The major cost savings come from discouraging student participation in behind-the-wheel training (estimated to cost $423 per pupil statewide and $466 in Chicago according to the RCM) through utilization of student fees. The response of districts and students to raising and paying fees is not known. Low savings estimates assume that enrollment for behind-the-wheel training fell 10 percent statewide, and 20 percent where in Chicago where financial obstacles prevent students from paying the fee and where more transportation alternatives exist. High savings estimates enrollment reduction by 20 and 40 percent. All costs are assumed to be saved because most students would not have to substitute other course work for behind-the-wheel training.

Transitional language programs. In estimating costs of the proposed ISBE mandate changes, the RCM model again provides the basis of the estimates. The RCM committee of experts established approximately four instructional programs for elementary level LEP students:

1) For schools with nine eligible students per grade of the same native language, self-contained bilingual classrooms would serve a target enrollment of 22 students per teacher with a maximum of 28 and a minimum of 12 LEP students.

2) In schools with at least eight pupils of the same language group, a bilingual pull-out program would serve a target unit size of 16 students, a maximum of 23, and a minimum of 8.

3) Mixed language resource rooms providing ESL instruction would serve schools with a mixed language LEP enrollment exceeding 20 students. Each resource room teacher should have a target caseload of 30 students, a maximum of 30 students, and a minimum of 20 students.

4) A 20 percent mixed language itinerant ESL teacher could serve a target number of 16 children for schools with fewer than 20 LEP students.

Based on 1981-82 state average salaries for teachers and other resource prices, estimated costs per pupil for target enrollments in the four configurations were $1,141, $1,071, $848, and $1,278. To provide bilingual education under the last two configurations, a native language resource aide would have to be added at a cost of $869 per student. Thus, the cost of low-incidence bilingual programs is almost double the cost of self-contained programs. At the minimum, class size or claseload costs jumped to $2,092, $2,143, $1,273, and

$5,113. Program administration contributed $2,720 per teacher for minimum size programs (about 20 students), $3,821 in medium size programs (about 50 students), and $2,526 in large size programs (about 1000 students).

The cost estimates below are based on hypothetical reactions to three combinations of state funding and monitoring/technical assistance levels:

	Illinois	Chicago
Low Cost (poorly funded, lightly monitored)	$ 23,150,000	$ 3,360,000
Medium Cost (moderately funded, highly monitored)	$ 25,647,000	$ 9,849,000
Medium Cost (highly funded, lightly monitored)	26,271,000	10,087,000

Low cost estimates assume only about half of the estimated 17,000 unserved LEP students would actually get services, and then only for the maximum-caseload ESL configuration ($916 per student in 1985-86 prices). Medium cost estimates with moderate state funding and a high level of monitoring/technical assistance assume that all 17,000 students get services split equally between pull-out, ESL, and itinerant ESL (averaging $1,343 per pupil in 1985-86 prices). The other medium cost configuration assumes that a highly funded program with little state monitoring stimulates the identification of limited-English-proficiency children, but that they receive services at the same level as in the low cost configuration ($916 per pupil). Program costs, drawn from the RCM, of $1.4 million, $2.8 million, and $2.9 million for the three configurations are added to the totals. Chicago calculations come from assumptions that 35 percent of the newly served students enroll in Chicago schools, and that costs are 10 percent higher than in the remainder of the state. Since Chicago has a fairly well implemented assessment system, enrollments for the high and low cost estimates may not vary as much from the current estimate of unserved students.

6. Innovative Service Delivery

The Illinois Commission and the Illinois State Board of Education offer only a few reform recommendations that could roughly fit within this category. The "optional education" programs aimed at truants and dropouts provide one example. Most of the proposed options (e.g. adult education, community college course work, proficiency examinations, correspondence courses, summer school, and evening school) are already available to districts and occasionally utilized. The task of reform is to encourage their development and utilization, primarily through financial incentives and planning. In addition, the Illinois Commission and the Illinois Project for School Reform recommend a program to recognize effective schools. The Illinois Commission also proposed pilot programs to enhance self-concept (self-image, self-esteem) to help prevent the need for future remediation. Both the Illinois Commission and the Illinois Project for School Reform urge the selective use of proficiency tests to allow students to take more challenging courses, but not as a basis for early graduation. Such options in local districts currently exist; however, the Illinois Project wants state-developed exams and a recognition process conveying prestige for those who pass.

Most of the ideas for new and reborn forms of instructional delivery come from the Illinois Project for School Reform:

1) Statewide Academic Olympics

2) School day/week/year alterations

3) Community contracts under which subjects like art, health, and P.E. could be taught by community members

4) Begin school at age four, but drop a year of high school

5) Local school building or improvement councils in large urban districts

6) Business-created schools

7) Merit schools

8) Compacts with the business community such as the Boston Compact

9) School/university consortia

10) Before and After School Centers

Many of these "reforms" already exist under current state laws. In order to encourage local development of the proposed reforms, the following programs were recommended:

1) Appoint eight regional councils to negotiate compacts between school districts and universities.

2) Individualized Educational Delivery Plans (IEDPs) to assist in the development of local reforms, particularly with regard to day/week/year alterations.

3) The Educational Privatization Project would help create cooperative relationships between schools and communities (e.g., hospitals teach health, museums teach art, local restaurants provide food service).
4) The Illinois Education Venture Capital Fund would provide seed money for experimental approaches to education, funds for school officials to seek private support, and resources to fund regionally-based merit school plans.

5) Create an Education and Business Department within the State Board of Education.

6) Create school/business councils in the 57 Educational Service Regions (ESRs).

7) Establish planning councils for Before and After School programs in the 57 ESRs.

Background

Most of the specific proposals of the Illinois School Reform Project have appeared in other parts of the country, or even within Illinois. Some even state legislation for implementation:

- Four day weeks are not currently allowed.

- Compulsory attendance laws need alteration if some local districts were to require attendance at age 4.

- If local school building councils had control over part of the school budget, some changes in state law may be necessary.

The community education contract ideas, if involving more than field trips or falling outside the vocational education rubric, would require substantial new state legislation with respect to teacher certification.

Academic Olympics. Around the nation, academic olympics (competition amoung selected students from different schools or districts modeled after the "College Bowl" television show) have become popular. At least 32 state schools participated in an Academic Olympics last spring, including Hillsboro, Centralia, Homewood-Flossmor, Evanston, New Trier, Oak Park-River Forest, Benet Academy, and Chicago Latin School (Hillsboro News Gazette, May 8, 1984).

Advanced Placement. Students earn college credit while taking more rigorous academic courses in high school through Advanced Placement (A.P.). Advanced placement grew dramatically in the last two years, "Lifted on the Rising Tide of Reforms," (Educ. Week, Nov. 21, 1984). More than one-quarter of the nation's high schools offer "A.P." courses and in 1984, more than 177,000 students nationwide took an A.P. examination. According to ETS, 15 percent of those taking A.P. tests were minorities. South Carolina requires districts to offer advanced placement tests. Utah spends almost $1 million to encourage local participation. The Educational Testing Service, which administered 143,000 A.P. tests, claims that part of the growth in A.P. is explained by the easily made national comparisons, and Advanced Placement's possibilities for inexpensively meeting the demands for educational excellence for the gifted and talented (Educ. Week, Nov. 21, 1984).

Before and After School Centers. Throughout the nation, an estimated 7 million children 13 years old and under are without adult care or supervision before and/or after school (Educ. Week, May 30, 1984). Some argue that "latch-key" children have high levels of fear, and the parents experience guilt. Others claim to find no statistically significant differences in self-esteem, personality, or self-control. Most child care centers for school age children are community-based, rather than school-based, and exist primarily in the private child care sector. Nonpublic schools have been more responsive in this area, with one-third of the membership of the National Association of Independent Schools reporting extended day programs (Educ. Week, Nov. 14, 1984).

College/School Cooperation. The principal response of universities to the education reform efforts of the 1980s has been to urge more university/school links. The American Association for Higher Education, for example, devoted its 1984 annual meetings to this subject. For a description of numerous programs throughout the country, see Education Week, Mar. 28, 1984. Universities are particularly interested in bringing more minority and disadvantaged students into the "mainstream" to fill classrooms. Typically these programs bring school children to the university, rather than the university and its faculty to the schools.

Privatization. A principal focus of "privatization" in Illinois has been on behind-the-wheel drivers education. The ISBE, the Illinois Project for School Reform, and the Illinois Commission suggest this direction. School districts already contract for school transportation, including Chicago. The background paper on instructional delivery of the Illinois Project for School Reform indicated that "privatization" might include contracting with private business/agencies for vocational education, an area that has come under attack both locally (Chicago United, 1984) and nationally (Educ. Week, Dec. 4, 1983; Nov. 28, 1984; Dec. 12, 1984; Educ. USA, Nov. 14, 1983).

School/Business Relationships. Large city schools have continuously developed better relationships with business for several years. Under adopt-a-school plans, businesses share people, equipment, and/or supplies with a specific school. Chicago already has more than 200 adopted schools (Educ. USA, 1983). One national survey of 193 companies found that 30 percent participate in adopt-a-school programs (Educ. Week, Feb. 1, 1984). The Boston Compact received the most attention in the Illinois Project for School Reform's final report. In return for improved academic achievement and a reduced dropout rate, the Boston business community promised to hire Boston high school graduates and provide summer jobs according to specified quotas. Already more than 20 Boston area colleges and universities now participate in the compact with the promise to increase enrollment of Boston high school graduates by 25 percent. Once funded entirely by private foundation grants, the Boston School Department now contributes about $300,000 a year to the program.

Local School Building or School Improvement Councils. Both California and Florida (where school districts are organized on a county basis) require these councils, also known as School Improvement Councils. In these states, substantial authority over funding, curriculum, and staffing is delegated to the local councils, composed of parents, teachers, and the principal. The council assesses the strengths and weaknesses of their local school, develops an improvement plan, and uses its control over substantial extra funding to carry out the plan. Some large cities such as Boston, New York and Cinncinati have utilized school improvement councils to resolve conflicts over scarce resource allocation by shifting power from the central school board level to the local school site.

Designs for Change proposes a school improvement plan modeled after California's eight-year-old plan that now includes 4,000 schools. Under the California plan, substantial planning authority is delegated to School

Improvement Councils, which consist of parents, teachers, and the principal. These councils assess the strengths and weaknesses of their local school (under a planning grant of $40 per pupil), develop an improvement plan, and receive $100 per pupil through state funding to carry out their plan.

A reveiw of educational reform in 30 states by the Rand Corporation concludes that those states experiencing the greatest degree of improvement have focused syustematically on the local school as the key unit to change (McLaughlin, 1983). Based on a study of school-focused reform strategies in 10 states, Odden (forthcoming) concludes that the California approach is the best-conceived and most effective of such school-based strategies. An extensive assessment of the California School Improvement Program indicates that it has resulted in "greatly improved" or "improved" school effectiveness in such areas as reading achievement in 52% of participating schools, and the maintenance of previous levels of effectiveness in 37% of participating schools (Berman and Gjelten, 1984). The study further indicates that the schools that were most improved were those that fully carried out the process of school-level planning and decision-making spelled out in the legislation.

Under the Designs for Change proposal, cost of the program would be $15.5 million for year one (planning grants for all Chicago schools), $28.5 million for year two (implementation grants for one-half of Chicago schools), and $51.5 million for year three (implementation grants for all Chicago schools).

Merit Schools. Innovative programs might be stimulated by rewarding innovation as well as by providing planning funds. By rewarding schools rather than individuals, it is hoped that cooperation will be stimulated. Florida allocated $20 million to a merit school plan with half for the 25 percent of the schools deemed meritorious. Much of the money would be distributed as cash grants to school personnel. Unions tend to oppose the plan, however, and fewer than half of Florida's districts are expected to participate. The plan may stigmatize 3 out of 4 Florida districts, some think, and while benefiting teachers in suburban, upper-middle-class schools. Arkansas, California, South Carolina, and Tennessee are experimenting with incentive awards aimed at schools showing the greatest achievement gains.

Dissemination and Utilization of Innovation

As already noted, many of the specific instructional delivery innovations outlined in the reform proposals need no new state legislation, and consequently can be examined in the context of disseminating and utilizing innovation. Experience with recent attempts by states and the federal government to promote innovation, most of which are no longer funded, provide evidence about the conditions under which innovations will be most effectively implemented. Furthermore, some of the specific mechanisms for promoting new instructional delivery -- such as the Venture Capital Fund -- could be viewed as a replacement for federally funded efforts to encourage innovation.

Milbrey McLaughlin (1983) concluded that Federal IV-C (Innovative Projects) funds encouraged an active State Education Agency (SEA) role. In 1981-82, $13,500,000 was reappropriated under Part C of Title IV for assistance in the development and demonstration of programs designed to address serious educational problems. Part C monies are awarded on a competitive basis following the submission of a structured proposal and budget. The National Diffusion Network (NDN) disseminated new programs and educational products validated as "exemplary" by a national panel. The Illinois Resource and Disseminacomputer search bibliographies, journal articles, and ERIC documents. The IRDN also identified and collected descriptions of promising educational programs and practices. The Promising Practice File (PPF) contain over 600 programs from the National Diffusion Network, Title I (Educationally Deprived Children), Title IV-C (Improvement in Local Educational Practice) and other Elementary and Secondary Education Act programs and practices. The IRDN also had the credentials of more than 1,200 consultants on file. The Research and Development Utilization (RDU) program operated on the same basic principle as Title IV and the NDN, but operated through several regional centers, each typically including an SEA working in conjunction with other R&D, technical assistance, and training agencies. Evaluation of these and similar efforts indicate a considerable record of success (Crandall and Associates, 1983; Fullan, 1982; Louis et al., 1981; McDonnell and McLaughlin, 1980). In many instances the programs changed teacher behavior.

One body of research points to the importance of state and local factors in explaining variation in implementation outcomes (e.g., Berman and McLaughlin, 1975, 1977; McDonnell and McLaughlin, 1982). State political cultures, the amount of autonomy, and the degree of community support were identified as major factors. All major studies of federal dissemination efforts found a strong relationship between the relevance of a specific project and the extent of its implementation (Fullan, 1982). Unless classroom teachers are committed to a proposed change and receive sufficient training and assistance, innovative projects stand little chance of being incorporated.

Even if a project is relevant, well conceived, and supported at the local level, implementation was unlikely to occur without face-to-face assistance by qualified dissemination staff (Crandall and Associates, 1982; Louis et al., 1981). External assistance encompasses a broad range of activities including: 1) pre-implementation help in identifying local needs; 2) focused training from specialists, and 3) more generalized assistance during implementation.

Another innovation of Title IV-C deserving particular attention is a system of mini-grants, usually no more than $10,000 and often considerably less, which were awarded competitively to individual schools or teachers for only one year. Funds were used primarily to purchase materials and training. An evaluation of Title IV-C mini-grants found they had an impact far in excess of their costs, primarily because they generated high levels of commitment and enthusiasm and appealed to teachers' sense of professionalism. They signaled that innovation is recognized and encouraged.

A system of mini-grants, as implied by the funding levels of the Education Venture Capital Fund and the IEDP grants, imply that a small amount of resources would be highly leveraged. However, the global changes sought by the reform groups are unlikely to be achieved at a mini-grant funding level. Successful innovation seems to depend on local factors, the relevance of the innovation, and the provisions of assistance by qualified disseminations staff. Overall, the role of technical assistance seems to be ignored in the various proposals to stimulate innovative educational delivery, possibly with the exception of the proposal to create an education and business department in the ISBE. In the latter case, the new department would have to be funded substantially rather than being a symbolic office relegated to raising corporate donations.

Adequacy and Equity of Proposed Funding

The Illinois Project for School Reform relies extensively on regional councils to foster innovation, including: 1) eight regional councils to negotiate school district/university compacts; 2) advisory councils appointed by each of the 57 ESR superintendents to plan for the creation of Before and After School Centers; and 3) Regional/Business Planning Councils in the 57 ESRs to help develop cooperative programs between schools and businesses. Furthermore, local school building councils in large urban districts would be established. No cost estimates were noted or estimated for these 122 new regional councils in the state, or for the 800 to 1,000 local school building councils.

The $500,000 Venture Capital Fund, the $100,000 designated for 6-10 pilot projects of the Educational Privatization Project, and the 100 IEDP grants of $25,000, clearly fall in the "mini-grant" category. In 1980-81 alone, Illinois Districts spent $13.5 million through Title IV-C (innovative projects) and Title V-B provided $2.2 million for state-funded technical assistance. Federal funding for these projects had disappeared by 1984-85. The "Venture Capital Grant," originally proposed by the Center for the Study of Educational Finance at Illinois State University (Hickrod, 1984), would have awarded an average of $150 per pupil to local districts, varying from $50 to $250 depending on district wealth, at a total state cost of about $125 million.

The case for corporate funding for innovative education may also be exaggerated, and innovation may be limited by the specific interests of corporate givers. According to the Council on Financial Aid to Education (Educ. Week, Feb. 1, 1984), only 4 percent ($52 million) of the $1.3 billion given to education by corporations went to public or private elementary and secondary schools in 1982. If Illinois got five percent, this amounts to $2.6 million. About 56 percent of corporate aid to elementary and secondary education came through cash grants, 25% through matching grants, and 14 percent through equipment. Matching gifts were usually matched to employee contributions. Furthermore, about 60 percent of corporate contributions went to orgnizations and assocations concerned with improving pre-college education, such as Junior Achievement, rather than being directed to schools. When companies limited their support to specific areas, the most popular were economic education, math, science, and computer science. The Chicago Teachers Union reform proposals explicitly recommended that business-sponsored school programs must be supportive and enhance the established curriculum.

The amount of corporate contributions to the Education Venture Capital fund may be minimal. Kentucky's state Foundation for Public Schools began with a single $25,000 grant. California's Educational Initiative Fund, the largest of its type in the country, awarded 71 grants last year, totaling $600,000.

School/business and school/university relationships may not only "steer" school curriculum, but they may stimulate increased public expenditures. The Boston Compact now gets $300,000 from the school budget. Chicago's adopt-a-school program costs about $125,000 in administration costs alone, and the Illinois Project for School Reform wants funds taken away from other State Board functions to fund an Education and Business Department. Not only foundations, but also many federal programs, seek to stimulate planning and "local capacity building," thus imposing future financial burdens on local school districts similar to the alleged burdens of current state mandates.

Reform Cost Estimates

The low cost estimates for reforms in the instructional delivery area come primarily from the recommended appropriations of the Illinos Project for School Reform. Both high and low cost estimates exclude consideration of "optional education," and day/week/year recommendations, both of which appear in other sections of this study. The high cost estimates seek to predict full cost implementation of many of the suggested reforms, based primarily on existing programs in other states.

	Illinois	Chicago (24% of total)
High Cost Plan	$239,140,000	$69,187,000
Medium Cost Plan (Designs for Change)	51,500,000	51,500,000
Low Cost Plan (Illinois Project)	1,105,000	276,000

Low Cost Plan. The core of the low cost plan is comprised of $500,000 for the Illinois Education Venture Fund, and $100,000 for the 8-10 pilot programs of the Education Privatization Act. If regional councils cost $2,500 annually for travel and nonpersonnel expenses, the eight university councils would cost $20,000, the 57 regional school/business councils would add $142,000, and the 57 regional Before and After School Center Councils would add another $142,000. If the minimum size Education and Business Department in the ISBE costs $100,000, the total minimum costs just exceed $1 million. For purpose of simplicity, Chicago's share of these programs is assumed to be 24 percent of the total (Chicago's share of state enrollment). The pilot programs on self-concept recommended by the Illinois Commission, which are expected to cost $1.2 million -- 20 projects at $60,000 each (see Reference Note 1), are obviously not included in the low cost plan. Note that local costs stimulated by the funding incentives, planning grants, and councils are not estimated in the low cost plan.

High Cost Plan. This proposal estimates the costs of actual implementation or offers more realistic cost estimates of effective innovations based on experiences in other states. The $7.4 million for advanced placement is nine times the amount the Utah state government actually spends subsidizing local efforts. Florida, a state with a standard enrollment 80 percent as large as Illinois, spends $20 million in its expansive merit school ~~plan~~. The Illinois Venture Grant Program of the Center for Educational Finance would cost about $125,000,000. At $100 per pupil (full implementation of the Designs for Change Proposal without planning grants), school improvement councils need $55,190,000 if school improvement councils were required in Chicago, Elgin, Decatur, Peoria, East St. Louis, Springfield, Rockford and Waukeegan. An Education and Business Department would cost at least $250,000 to provide staff for fund solicitation and a minimum of technical assistance. The Education Privatization Act would cost $8 million to provide planning grants, averaging $8,000 to 1,000 Illinois districts. If the 20 self-esteem pilot projects were expanded to pilot projects for half of Illinois districts, the tab rises to $6.1 million. All of these costs would be new costs, except perhaps the school building council idea. In this case, the authority over currently budgeted funds could be shifted from a central level to the local school site.

C. STUDENT ATTENDANCE

7. Compulsory Attendance Ages

Since 1907, there has been compulsory school year attendance for Illinois children between the ages of 7 and 16. The ISBE recommends that the maximum compulsory attendance age be increased to 18 and also recommends modification of laws to enable students to leave the regular school program at age 16 and enter optional programs. School districts would be required to study their dropout problems and develop plans to address the problem, including policies regarding optional education programs. The State Superintendent proposed categorical funding of $13.1 million to fund optional education programs. In addition, state general aid and local taxes would follow each student in optional education. The Illinois Commission and CTU endorsed the school district dropout study idea and the increased emphasis on optional education programs but did not propose increasing the mandatory attendance age. The CTU staunchly opposes proficiency exams that would substitute for coursework or graduation requirements. This position may extend to other forms of "optional education," especially part-time or "no-time" options that threaten classroom teaching positions.

The Illinois Commission's August 1984 draft proposed lowering the compulsory attendance age to 5 (by September 1), thus making kindergarten mandatory. The final report dropped the idea of lowering the minimum age from 7 to 5 but instead recommends that students turning 5 after September 1 (November 1 is the present cutoff date) not be admitted to kindergarten unless the local district can prove kindergarten readiness. The CTU endorsed the original proposal of the Illinois Commission. The proposal to make kindergarten mandatory receives more attention in the early childhood section of this report. (See Chapter -)

Background

Though many national reports emphasized the need for extending the education of youth, for the most part, compulsory attendance has not appeared on the reform agenda nationally, partly because many states already have compulsory attendance to age 18, and partly because the compulsory attendance age bears only a slight relationship to the school attendance rates. The ISBE proposal attempts to reduce the dropout rate by increasing the compulsory attendance age. The State Board insists that the ability of 16 year olds to unilaterally drop out of school contributes substantially to early school leaving. However, under current state laws, a student who turns 16 must finish the school year and must finish any school year once enrolled in the fall. Except for over-age students, this carries most pupils through their junior year.

Most objections to the proposal center on financial costs, both for the increased cost of optional programs (Port Huron Globe, Aug. 9, 1984) without the prospect of more state aid, and because additional students would dilute existing resources (Collinsville Herald, July 30, 1984). Teachers would also be overburdened by disruptive students who need a law to keep them in the school building. Others argue that current compulsory attendance laws are unsuccessfully enforced because parents must "willfully" keep their children out of school and willfully is difficult to define (Salem Times-Commoner, July 25, 1984). Another idea focuses on the need for more money at the junior high school level to prevent dropouts rather than for educational options at the junior and senior high school levels.

ISBE Cost Estimates

The proposed $13.2 million categorical aid for optional education programs was reached through the following process. All of the estimated 27,000 16 to 18 year old dropouts are assumed to participate in optional education programs:

15% -- GED exam without instruction

20% -- Full-time program

65% -- Part-time options

The State's share was set at $920 per full-time pupil (50 percent of the 1985-86 foundation level in the state general aid formula) or $460 for part-time students. GED testing costs were set at $81,000.

This process, however, probably bears little relationship to the way students, families, and schools would adapt to either a change in compulsory attendances, or to the availability of optional progrms. Only a fraction of the estimated 27,000 dropouts would remain in school due to compulsory attendance law changes. According to the 1970 census, the attendance rate of 16 year olds in Ohio (94.5%) and Pennsylvania (95.2%), both states requiring the enrollment of 17 year olds, equalled or barely exceeded Illinois' rate (94.5%). California and Michigan, states requiring attendance only to age 16, had higher 16 year old attendance rates, 96.5 percent and 95.2 percent respectively, than Ohio or Pennsylvania. If the 16 year old attendance rate grew by 1 percent and the 17 year old attendance rate by 2.5 percent, about 4,500 of the 27,000 dropouts would be back in school; the remainder would become chronic truants.

Many of the newly retained students would also remain in regular education programs for a variety of reasons. Many students who presently do not drop out could also be expected to take advantage of optional education programs. The $920 figure for the State's share of full-time instruction is purely arbitrary. However, given the inflated optional education enrollment projections $13.2 million represents a generous allocation and would also help districts develop more options for students who presently remain in school.

Reform Cost Estimates

Of the three cost estimates presented below, we believe that the medium cost figures are the most accurate. The high cost estimate assumes both enrollment and per student costs of 50 percent more than assumed in the medium cost estimates. The low cost estimate relies on extensive utilization of optional education programs both by those who would have dropped out and by those students attracted to optional education who presently remain in school anyway.

	Illinois	Chicago
High Cost	$16,453,000	$9,047,000
Medium Cost	6,248,000	3,435,750
Low Cost	3,056,000	1,681,000

Medium cost estimates of the cost of raising the compulsory attendance age to 18 rely on the following assumptions:

a. Age specific attendance rates rise 1 percent for grade 11 enrollment (mostly 16 year olds) and 25 percent for grade 12 (predominantly 17 year olds), levels comparable to large industrial states with compulsory attendance to age 17 or 18. About 4,500 additional students would remain in schools, statewide, with half in Chicago.

b. One-half would enter optional education programs, many of which already exist, at a cost of $1,152 per pupil -- the Illinois Commission cost estimate of optional programs for dropouts (see the dropout section of this report chapter).

c. One-half would remain in regular education programs at a cost of $1,625 statewide and $1,787 in Chicago -- the direct classroom instruction costs assumed throughout this study. These estimates are derived from the RCM and provide for 6 periods of instruction composed of basic English, basic math, general science, social science, art, and a study hall. Vocational education, special education, and other electives as well as any specialized support services generated by newly retained students are not part of this cost component.

High cost estimates assume that no new optional education programs are developed and that the number of students retained by schools as a result of the increased mandatory attendance age is 50 percent larger, or 6,750 students statewide. Furthermore, the additional cost per student is assumed to be 50 percent greater ($2,437 per pupil statewide), a figure well under the average cost of education for Illinois high school students.

Low cost estimates assume not only that all newly retained students will enter optional education programs, but also that an equal number of those who would not drop out would take advantage of the mostly part-time optional education programs at a cost savings of $473 statewide, the difference between $1,625 and $1,152, and $520 in Chicago.

8. Early Childhood Education

Early childhood education has gained significant attention on the national reform agenda and now appears in many state reform packages. The Illinois Commission encourages local districts to provide full-day kindergarten and further incentives and recommends state reimbursement for full-day kindergarten through the general state aid formula. Presently, kindergarten students count as half a pupil for state aid purposes. Both the Governor and the CTU support full-day kindergarten reimbursement through the state aid formula. The Governor's funding estimates, however, contain no specific provision for full-day kindergarten reimbursement.

The preliminary report of the Illinois Commission recommended that the mandatory school attendance age be changed from 7 to 5 (by September 1), thus making kindergarten mandatory. The CTU endorsed this approach. However, the final report encourages school districts to evaluate children for reading readiness, and recommends that children turning 5 after September 1 (the present cutoff is December 1) not be admitted to kindergarten without school district proof of reading readiness. This change complements the Illinois Commission's proposal to encourage local districts to assess the preschool population and provide appropriate programs, an approach also endorsed by the Chicago Teachers Union. The focus on assessment corresponds closely to State Board efforts in the early childhood areas over the past several years; however, few formal ISBE proposals appear in this area. As part of the reform package of former State Superintendent Donald Gill's 1985-86 budget, $1,000,000 would fund five pilot programs for birth-to-three special education programs. The proposed mandate of services for this population would begin in 1988-89 and is estimated to cost between $25 and $40 million.

Though only encouraging local districts to assess the preschool population and provide programs, "encouraging" may imply state financial assistance according to Illinois Commission cost estimates (Reference Note 1). Of the $85 million first-year costs attached to kindergarten/preschool activities, $60 million would fund half-day preschool for about 30 percent of three and four year olds defined as "at risk." The Governor's project TRAIN (Transition And Independence) would provide $13 million in 1986-87 for competitive grants for local school districts, child welfare agencies, universities, regional centers, and for-profit day care centers to fund a variety of prototype early learning opportunitites for children. A panel of experts would approve and assess programs. Though proposed funding rises to $30 and $33 million in the following two years, only $10 million is proposed for the fourth year, and none after that. The extent to which this program would center on "at risk" or disadvantaged preschool-age children remains unknown.

The Illinois Project for School Reform touched on early childhood issues only in the context of Individualized Educational Delivery Plans, in which the possibility of beginning school at age 4 and dropping a year of high school received attention as a local district option. Designs for Change (1985), a Chicago-based nonprofit research corporation and a local affiliate of National Coalition of Advocates for Students (who published Barriers to Excellence in January 1985) recommends all-day kindergarten, and all-day preschool for 3 and 4 year olds from low income families funded at state expense. "The Group," a coalition composed principally of large city school districts, supports the Illinois Commission proposals with the except it changes the kindergarten attendance cutoff to September 1.

Background

The early childhood proposals in Illinois, like those nationally, reflect a variety of conflicting demands and perspectives:

1) The belief that these programs can stem subsequent academic failure, teenage pregnancy, delinquency, unemployment, drug abuse, and chronic dependence on welfare.

2) Demands by working parents for improved day care and preschool accessibility.

3) Expansion of special education interest groups into the early childhood education area.

4) Cutbacks in state and federal day care funding. According to the Day Care Action Council of Illinois (Chicago Tribune, Feb. 13, 1985) state day care support slid from $31.9 million in 1980 to $27.8 million in 1985.

Psychology professor Edward Zigler of Yale believes that too many are jumping on the early schooling band wagon in search of another "Panacea and solution" for the ills of public education (Educ. Week, Feb. 13, 1985). "It's a new wave of hysteria in this country," he said. "We keep asking schools to do more and more without giving them enough funds to do anything well."

Nevertheless, the band wagon rolls on despite playing a minor roll in the major national commission/task force reports that tend to focus on high schools. New York City began providing voluntary, full-day kindergarten this year, and the total full-day enrollment plus waiting lists (not enough funds were appropriated for full implementation) exceeded the previous year's half-day programs. New York, Connecticut, Michigan, Missouri and South Carolina explored proposals for programs for four year olds (Educ. Week, Feb. 13, 1985). The Michigan proposal was linked not only to poor and minority students, but also to single or working parents. A two-year old New York state education department plan would start children in school at age 4 and send them to college a year early (Educ. Week, Feb. 2, 1983). The principle rationale for the plan is that children are ready for school an earlier age.

Though the New York idea is based on the "super-baby syndrome," a widening achievement gap at school entrance exists due to educational television, "preacademic" preschools, and increasing parental concern with early academic education (Educ. Week, Feb. 13, 1985). Not only has the super-baby syndrome focused attention on equity issues -- since poor children may now be starting school farther behind their peers than they used to -- but the problem of an appropriate curriculum exists. Will using a 1st grade curriculum with four year olds harm them and push children toward hating school at an early age? An evaluation of California's recent reforms (California Tax Foundation, 1985) indicated some school district resistance to lengthening kindergarten from two and a half hours to three hours because of the short attention span of kindergarten children. The Minneapolis school system gained national notoriety in 1984 by "flunking" 11 percent of its kindergarten class on the basis of competency tests and making them go to summer school.

An extensive preschool system, lodged primarily in the private sector, already exists. According to the 1980 census data (Child Care Arrangements of Working Mothers, 1982), 55 percent of working mothers with children under the age of 5 sent their preschoolers for day care outside of the home, though only 15 percent placed children in nursery schools or day care centers. The proportion of mothers not in the labor force who would seek work if they could find reasonable child care prices was three times higher for families with 1980 incomes under $15,000 (36%) than for those with incomes exceeding $25,000 (13 percent). Among four year olds, 46 percent are already in government-subsidized programs for low income families or in private programs Educ. Week, March 14, 1984).

Some experts believe that the next 5 to 10 years are good years for increasing the public school's role in child care services because of the growing number of working mothers and an improved fiscal status in the states. The best way to introduce a public role, some argue, is probably through before and after-school care and full-day kingergarten. One reason for the increased demand for public school involvement comes from cutbacks in Title XX of the Social Security Act, which served as a major source of federal aid for day care programs serving low income youth (Educ. Week, Sept. 19, 1984). The 21 percent cuts forced other cuts at the state level, and 32 states provided less Title XX child care in 1984 than in 1981, including Illinois.

Oppontents of the move toward public sponsorship of preprimary education (Educ. Week, March 14, 1984) argue that a hidden agenda contains:

-- Providing services to children whose parents are now unwilling to pay.

-- Providing a safe place for a growing population of abused and neglected children.

-- Filling empty classrooms and putting unemployed teachers back to work.

-- Formalizing, standardizing, and monitoring existing programs.

They argue not only that powerful pressure groups with vested interests seek to guide policy, but also that well-meaning legislators and parents may unpredictably alter preprimary education.

Effectiveness

Considerable disagreement exists over the promise of early childhood education for improving children's success in school and in life.

Against the backdrop of a substantial media focus on gang violence in the fall of 1984, the Chicago Tribune ran a series of editorials on early childhood programs, appropriately enough, between Christmas and New Years (Dec. 24 to Dec. 30, 1984). The editorial argued that, "It's possible to succeed where all the massive, costly social programs of the last two decades failed. It's possible to transform the doomed children of the underclass into productive, self-sustaining young people. What works and has been proved to work in hundreds of research projects and tens of thousands of lives is early childhood education." The Tribune argues that the level of intelligence could be raised significantly and permanently. Relying on the outcome of a single study, the Perry Preschool Program (Changed Lives, 1984), the case for reduced costs of welfare, special education, and criminal justice was highlighted as being as attractive to government budget-cutters as to humanitarians. While arguing that Head Start was "Too little and too late to prevent some mental malnourishment," the Tribune argued nonetheless that Head Start has succeeded. One problem with Head Start was supposedly the emphasis on traditional nursery schools that emphasized social development. The Tribune's proposed early childhood education model would involve: 1) home start teachers working with mothers soon after birth, 2) half-day preschool at age 2 and one-half, preferrably using Montessori schools, and 3) full-day kindergartens, again based on the Montessori model.

Teacher unions strongly support public expansion of preschool activities. Albert Shanker, President of the AFT in a paid advertisement (Educ. Week, Oct. 10, 1984) makes a case for preschool education comparable to the Tribune's case: preschool costs less in the long run. The results of the Perry Preschool Project (Changed Lives, 1984) should change the emphasis of the school reform movement, Shanker argues. New York Times (Sept. 11, 1984) columnist Fred Hechinger argues that, "No matter how long or expensive the initial process, it is always cheaper than recall. And the Perry Preschool Project shows that early investment in education is cost effective."

These perspectives contrasts, sometimes sharply, with an extensive body of research, much of which comes from the Head Start preschool programs. The first major study of Head Start programs (Bronfenbrenner, 1974) showed that: 1) high initial gains in IQ almost disappeared after 3 or 4 years 2) cognitively structured criteria produced greater gains than play-oriented programs, 3) age of entry was irrelevent. The Consortium for Longitudinal Studies (Lazar and Darlington, 1977) -- concerned about the band wagon of professionals in the 1970's who were denying the importance of early experiences -- examined "quality programs," and concluded that 1) IQ test score gains disappeared, 2) math achievement test scores tended to remain, but not reading, and 3) preschool children were clearly less likely to be assigned to special education or to be retained in grade, although there remains some controversy as to the interpretation of these findings.

Two well-known and expensive programs that began intervention shortly after birth reached conflicting results. The Milwaukee program (Garber and Heber, 1978) found high IQ gains that diminished over time, and achievement test gains diminished even more rapidly. The Abecedaria experiment (Ramey and Campbell, 1980) however, showed far less success. Some research (Becker and Gerston, 1982) indicates that the Head Start follow-through programs for low income 5th and 6th graders helped children keep the preschool gains, especially for limited-English-speaking students. Anne Clark's (1984) recent review of early experience and development concludes that total ecological change (e.g. adoption, or institutionalized care) effectively overcomes social disadvantage at birth, but when social disadvantage remains in the home environment, intellectual development continuously slows after early enrichment.

Since the Perry Preschool Project received so much attention and provides the single empirical study supporting claims of cost effectiveness, closer examination of the project is warranted. The subjects were drawn from the population of black, economically disadvantaged 3 and 4 year olds who tested in the "educable mentally retarded" range (IQ = 50-85) and attended Ypsilanti Michigan schools in the Perry school attendance area. Of 123 children, 58 were randomly selected for treatment and 65 remained in the sample control groups. In the first wave, 13 children received one year of preschool in 1962-63. A two-year program served the remaining 45 students in the 2nd through 5th waves, with each wave having 8 to 13 children over the next four years. Preschool consisted of half-day sessions, five days a week from mid-October through May, and teachers visited each family once a week for 90 minutes of home teaching.

Those drawing attention to the Perry Preschool Project, such as Albert Shanker, Fred Hechenger, the Chicago Tribune, and the National Coalition of Advocates for Children highlight these findings:

- 67 percent of the preschool group graduated from high school compared to 49 percent in the control group.
- 59 percent were employed compared to 32 percent of the control group.
- 31 percent had been arrested or detained compared to 51 percent of the others.
- Teenage pregnancies, 64 per 100 women, were half as great as in the control group, 117 per 100 women.

According to Shanker, the economic benefits exceed costs by a factor of seven and, according to the Chicago Tribune, taxpayers have already saved seven times the cost of one year of preschool.

As Senator Daniel Patrick Moynihan recently said, however, "The field of early childhood education continues to develop, albeit slowly, and curiously is still plagued by the extravagent reports of success of two decades ago. In truth, the lives so far of these 123 Middle Westerners suggest the extraordinary difficulties minority youth have in our cities," (Educ. Week, Oct. 24, 1984). A closer examination of the Perry Preschool Project reveals the following:

-- According to the project researchers, when cost savings are appropriately discounted (to reflect the present value of money at the time of preschool spending), they fall substantially below the costs of the program. Even without discounting, the cost of the 2 year program exceeds instructional cost savings.

-- With a 6 to 1 pupil-teacher ration, the program was enormously expensive -- $4,818 per child per year in 1981 prices, or about $6,200 in 1985-86 prices.

-- There was more variation among waves of the experiment than among control and experimental groups.

-- Cost saving figures are based on undiscounted life-time earning projections, not cost savings to date as the Tribune suggests.

A chapter in Changed Lives reviewed seven studies claiming to demonstrate the long-term effectiveness of early childhood education (arranged in order of program scope and cost, the most extensive first):

1. The Milwaukee study (Garber and Heber, 1981) focused on 40 children with mothers having measured IQ's less than 75, who experienced a 6-year, full-time, year-around program from age 3-6 months to 6 years of age.

2. The Perry Preschool study.

3. The New York Pre-K study (Irvine, 1982) is based on a New York state-funded pilot program with 2,000 children. The classroom component was equivalent to the Perry preschool, and homes were visited several times during the year.

4. The Rome Headstart program (Monroe and McDonald), resembling the New York Pre-K study, followed 218 students in Georgia.

5. The Early Training Study (Gray, Ramsey, and Klaus, 1982) involved only a part-time summer program for 90 students in Tennessee, but included weekly visits to the home during the school year.

6. The mother-child home study (Levinstein, O'Hara, and Madden, 1983) consisted of twice-weekly home visits to parent and child for one or two years for 250 children.

7. The Harlem study (Palmer, 1983) centered on 315 boys who got one-on-one sessions with a tutor twice weekly.

Except for the New York Pre-K experiment, and the Rome Headstart program, all participants were at least 90 percent black.

All six studies that collected data on intelligence documented immediate positive effects from early childhood education on intellectual performance. Only the Milwaukee study reported statistically significant advantages for the pre-school group after age 8. In four of the five studies with data on special education placement, placements usually decreased by half or more. Placement of preschool children in special education ranged from 2 percent (New York) to 37 percent (Perry Preschool), and for the comparison groups without preschool, from 5 percent (New York Pre-K) to 50 percent (Perry Project). The New York Pre-K program started in 1975 -- nine years after way of the other six studies -- so the low special education placements reflect the impact of state and federal laws on discrimination in testing and placement. Only two of the seven studies reviewed scholastic achievement, with the Perry Preschool project finding positive effects of pre-school through age 19; the Early Training study finding no effect after age 8.

The Perry Preschool project and the Rome Headstart study are the only studies to collect information on delinquency, crime, and pregnancy. Neither found a difference in the number of subjects referred to juvenile court, but the Perry Preschool study found lower self-reported delinquency for the preschool group, lower official records of arrests, and total number of referrals to juvenile court. While the Perry Project found a much higher teenage pregnancy rate, the Early Training study found no difference. (However, the preschool group mothers were more likely to return to high school). All three of the studies with data on dropout rates showed a lower dropout rate for the preschool group. Only the Perry Preschool study collected employment data.

Existing Cost Estimates

A wide variety of cost data exists in the early childhood area. The Illinois Day Care Action Council estimates that the average cost of full-time "day care", including baby sitting, is $2,200 per year. In contrast, the half-day Perry Preschool Program, adjusted by the GNP price deflator, would cost $6,200 per student in 1985-86 dollars. Since the average teacher salary from 1960-1980 rose 326 percent compared to a consumer price index of 251 percent, it could cost 30 percent more, or $8,060 for the same program today. Federal Head Start probrams are funded at the $1 billion level, and serve an estimated 430,000 children -- $2,907 per student once the 20 percent local contribution is added on.

Cost estimates of hypothetical programs in Illinois tend to fall well below these figures. The RCM model included an instructional configuration for a half-day bilingual preschool. At a target size class of 20 and state average prices (updated to reflect 1985-86 salary levels), direct instructional costs are $820 per student. A half-time aide, at $213.50 per student, is added for every 35 students. Most preschool teachers insist that preschool classes should have a maximum class size of 10 to 1, however, and this figure does not include program, school, and district administration costs.

For birth-to-three services, at least two sources for cost estimates exist. The State Board of Education estimates that center-based programs would cost $3,500 per child including diagnostic services, and that home-based programs cost only $2,500 per child. If the incidence rate equals 1.5 percent, and costs average $3,000 per child, the total comes to $31,500,000. The RCM model predicts higher costs. If appropriate birth-to-three services are comparable to the current self-contained early childhood model for 3-4 year olds, per pupil costs at the target class size of 7 are $4,820 in 1985-86 dollars. For every 10 pupils, an aide is added to the configuration, thus adding another $1,080 per pupil. Homebound instruction, for all ages, with a target (and also a maximum) caseload of 5, is $5,998. In either case, half-day or every other day models would cut some costs in half.

Illinois Commission cost estimates for mandatory half-day kindergarten calculate the number of newly needed public school teachers at 450 using the state average beginning salary, this totals $6.8 million (Reference Note 1). These estimates depend on the assumption that 15 percent of kindergarten age students are not presently enrolled and that 85 percent of the new enrollees would attend public kindergarten, the current percentage. Kindergarten teachers for the 3,000 new private school kindergarteners do not appear in the estimates. Using a similar set of assumptions, changing the kindergarten age cutoff to September 1 would result in a one-year $8.3 million cost savings if teachers were laid off in proportion to the temporary enrollment decline and if these teachers earned the average 1983-84 kindergarten teacher salary of $20,145. The Illinois Commission, however, proposes a three year implementation period and allows waivers for students showing reading readiness. This plan will probably result in the rapid utilization of kindergarten screening batteries for those districts that presently do not use them.

The Illinois Commission's cost estimates put preschool assessment costs at $12.50 per child or $2.25 million for all 180,000 four year olds. The estimates assume that all children below poverty level (assumed to be 17 percent, or 30,600 four year olds statewide), and other at risk preschool age children (assumed to be 14 percent of the 3 and 4 year old population) receive half-day preschool in classes averaging 30 students. If taught by teachers working at the beginning average salary of $15,225, the cost is $28.3 million for four year olds (about $507 per pupil). Full-day kindergarten costs were determined by doubling the number of kindergarten teachers paid at the 1983-84 state average beginning salary, or $46 million. In the cost estimates appearing in the Commission's final report, a series of mistakes were made in calculating the reported 1985, 1986, and 1987 costs of $85.9, $100.3, and $100.3 million for the preschool/kindergarten package. The correct figures for changing the cutoff date to September 1, compulsory full-day kindergarten, and 2 years of half-day preschool should be $85.1 and $133.6 million in the last two years.

Reform Cost Estimates

The difference between the promise and reality of early childhood education programs are clearly evident through in the cost estimates. The following estimates are among the most complex we make due to both the variety of proposals, and the substitution of proposed programs for existing day care, both privately and publicly subsidized. The birth-to-three proposal of the ISBE is not considered because it represents the expansion of education for the handicapped rather than for educational reform.

	Illinois	Chicago
Low Cost (Governor)	$ 3,250,000	$ 812,000
Medium Cost (Governor)	13,000,000	3,250,000
Medium Cost (Illinois Commission)		
Kindergarten:	19,800,000	0-30,000,000

High Cost		
Kindergarten:	99,000,000	25,438,000
Preschool:	107,800,000	42,333,000
(Day Care Cost Savings)		
(Kindergarten Age)	(-71,100,000)	(-17,936,000)
(Preschool Age)	(-27,200,000)	(- 9,700,000)
High Cost (Chicago Tribune)		
Kindergarten:	18,000,000	11,880,000
Preschool:	379,440,000	229,561,000
Birth to 3:	229,500,000	138,847,000
(Day Care Cost Savings)		
(Kindergarten Age)	(-12,087,000)	(- 9,865,000)

Low Cost and Medium Cost (Governor) If the governor's proposed $13 million funding for project TRAIN enrolled only students previously not part of the private or public day care system, or if slots in the existing day care system were filled as students enrolled in TRAIN, then $13 million represents new expenditures. If half of the funds designated for the pilot programs comes from existing state-supported day care funds, and half of the remainder merely replaces existing private day care of equivalent cost, only $3.25 million would represent new expenditures for preschool/day care.

Medium Cost (Illinois Commission). Despite publishing a cost figure exceeding $100 million for preschool/kindergarten activities, the Illinois Commission calls only for state reimbursement of full-day kindergarten through the general aid formula. Preschool activities are only encouraged. No one knows how many districts would take advantage of this new incentive to provide full-day kindergarten. If 20 percent of the districts took advantage of the new incentives, and these districts had the same characteristics as state averages, 600 new teachers (20 percent of the current number of kindergarten teachers in the state) at a state average cost of $33,000 per teacher would cost $19,800,000. Twenty percent of the current $35 million in general state aid generated by kindergarten students is $7 million. Chicago alone, however, would need 750 more kindergarten teachers to fully implement a full-day kindergarten program, which at a cost of $40,000 per teacher is $30 million. Only about half would be reimbursed through the state general aid formula.

High Cost. These estimates resemble those made for the Illinois Commission (Reference Note 2), but represent a more complete approach. Preschool costs use the RCM estimates for a teacher and aide for each target-size class of 20, or $1090 per student in 1985-86 dollars. If 98,900 three and four year olds qualify (the figure used by the Illinois Commission minus about 12,700 children already enrolled in public school preschool programs) costs total to $107.8 million. Full-day kindergarten requires a doubling of the current 3,000 kindergarten teachers, which at an average of $33,000 per teacher is $99 million. With 2.25 million for preschool assessment (at $12.50 per student for 180,000 students), total costs come to $209 million. If one-quarter of preschoolers and one-half of kindergarten students would have participated in day care (including babysitting) at an average cost of $1,100 per year for half-time care, approximately $27.2 million is saved at the preschool level and $71.1 million at the kindergarten level. Chicago figures were calculated in the same way except it was assumed that 55 percent of disadvantaged preschoolers live in Chicago (the current percentage of Title I eligible students that live in Chicago), that RCM preschool costs were 10 percent higher, and that kindergarten teacher costs average $40,000 per year for 654 new teachers.

High Cost (Tribune). These estimates apply only to disadvantaged preschoolers and kindergarten pupils (8 percent of the state population), and assume that children receive 2.5 years of birth-to-three services at $3,000 per year (an every other day model). Perry Project preschool costs of $6,200 per child are used in preschool calculations. Full-day kindergarten costs are the same as those calculated above (which certainly do not provide enough resources for a Montessori kindergarten) but apply only to the disadvantaged population. No day care savings are assumed for ages 0 to 3. Chicago estimates, again, are based on the assumption that 55 percent of the state's disadvantaged preschool and kindergarten population resides in Chicago. Consequently, Chicago's share is 60 to 65 percent of the total.

9. Lengthen School Day/Year

Among reform efforts in the state, only the ISBE explicitly recommends a specific alteration of the school day. The current five hour minimum would extend to seven hours, five of them devoted to the academic core (e.g., math, science, language arts, social studies, and foreign languages). This recommendation appears in the Board's 1984 annual report and may not be introduced in the state legislature. The Illinois Commission would require LEAs to study a lengthened school year and school day. In the context of raising minimum salaries to $20,000 by 1987-88, the Commission urges study of lengthening the school year, possibly just for staff development, at the local level. Better classroom management, as a way to more efficiently use time, would be an important component of the study.The interference of extracurricular activities with academics, particularly athletics, would receive much attention in the local studies. The athletics issue received much attention over the past two years around the nation.

As noted below the CTU proposals echo those of the Illinois Commission, with added specific policy proposals related to discipline. The Illinois School Reform Project recommends that school districts be allowed to create Individual Educational Delivery Plans (IEDPs) that would alter the school day/week/year configurations. Such alterations might include: 1) four-day weeks, but longer days; 2) half days in community settings; 3) beginning school age at four but condensing high school to three years; and 4) 45-15 schools (schools in session for 45 days and on break for 15 days over the entire year) 4). The flexibility of the IEDPs was seen as particularly useful in large urban districts where special needs children might be more adequately served. Thus, the "optional education" aspects of dropout prevention strategies would also fit within the IEDP framework.

Design for Excellence (1984), the long-range plan proposed for Chicago Public Schools, recommended extension of the school day and year citywide, as well as improving teachers' classroom management, and adopting a systemwide uniform policy on homework. Specifically, 45 minutes would be added to the school day for instruction, and 45 minutes for staff preparation. Teachers would work an 8 hour day (from 8:30 to 4:30) compared to the present six and one-half hour day (8:30 to 3:00). The school year would increase to 45 weeks from the present 39 weeks. The 45-15 plan would be considered in efforts to extend the school year, even though they did not recognize that they would become 53-7 plans.

On the more practical side, the Chicago Board of Education is seeking $9 million from the state legislature to fund a summer school program for the 32,000 students who flunked two or more courses during the regular school year. Although part of the Boards dropout prevention effort, summer school functions as an extension of the school year for a targeted group of students.

Background

The Commission on Excellence in Education focused attention on the school week/day/year issues by recommending 7 hour school days and 200-220 day school years. Better classroom management and organization of the school day also received attention, as well as, "Assigning far more homework than is now the case." Lessening the discipline and administrative burden on teachers was also expected to increase the time for learning. Comparisons to other industrialized countries provided a major portion of the rationale for these recommendations. Academic high schools in England -- which serve no more than 15 percent of the school population -- have 8 hour school days for 220 days per year. Japan has an equally long school year. West Germany, however, intends to drop Saturday classes. Furthermore, the Commission failed to note that many more high school aged youth are in formal education institutions in the United States.

The four day school week has been allowed in Colorado since 1980. Over the last four years, participation has grown from 10 to 60 schools (Educ. USA, August 22, 1983). The day must be lengthened to provide the equivalent of 5.5 hours per day for a five day week at the elementary level. Extracurricular events tend to be held on the fifth day. Cost savings for the predominately rural districts using the plan range from 2 to 3 percent. Some districts in Oregon also operate on a four day week.

A 1983 survey by the National Conference of State Legislatures found that the second most frequent legislative initiative was extending the time pupils spend in class through school day/year extension. Modest change has occurred in the school day/year area. (Educ. Week, Dec. 7, 1983). A number of states added 5 to 10 days to the school calendar, but no state requires more than 190 days of student instruction. Florida extended the high school day by one hour. Michigan considered lengthening the school year to 200 days.

California provided incentive money to increase instructional time for all grade levels -- $246 million for 1984-85, but only $205 million is proposed for 1985-86. Many high schools had cut back on sixth periods, and many school were at or near the state minimum of 175 instructional days.

By extending the year to 180 instructional days, districts get $35 per pupil. District increasing instructional time during the day got up to $20 per elementary pupil and $40 per high school pupil. Almost every school district in the state participated in the voluntary program.

According to the California Tax Foundation (1985), every one of 25 districts surveyed increased their school year to at least 180 days. Half the grade levels in all of the districts surveyed had instructional days increased by more than five minutes. Four of 25 district surveyed restored a sixth period to high school. Virtually all state incentive money helped increase salaries for existing employees. Almost every district negotiated salary increases for longer years and days separately from cost-of-living increases. In two-thirds of the districts, salaries increased in proportion to the number of new days worked. In half the districts, management worked longer and got paid more. In a few districts management was paid more though they already worked a full year. Many districts had escape clauses conditioned on state funding levels. Most districts were satisfied that the incentive money covered the increased costs. North Carolina funded two districts for a pilot test of the lengthened school year (20 days) and lengthened school day (.5 hours), but one district withdrew after 3 of 5 local school board candidates fell to defeat over the longer school year issue. The other district also faced substantial community opposition. The state funded a 5 percent bonus for teachers and an extra month's pay. Students had gained 3.1 months in reading achievement over the previous year.

Public opinion on a national level also stands opposed to a lengthened school year/day. In May 1982, only 37 percent of the public favored extending the school day by one hour, or the school year by 30 days (Phi Delta Kappa, Sept. 1984). After two years of intensive media attention focused on reform, the figures rose to 44 and 42 percent respectively, in 1984. Only raising college entrance requirements garnered less support among the American public for the major reforms considered in the 1984 Gallop survey of the attitudes toward public education.

The current Illinois year/day mandate of at least 176 five-hour days of pupil instruction has been in place since 1959. Some exceptions exist for part-time students, opening and closing days, inservice days, and forced use of daily multiple sessions (Section 18-8(c), The School Code). Full-year school plans are allowed by law but have not been used. Until recently, Chicago had some year-around 45-15 schools in neighborhoods with overcrowded schools. Almost all states in the country match the school day/year regulations in Illinois, and most have not changed laws for two decades (School Day, School Year Mandates, 1983).

A number of new mandates became part of the Illinois school day since 1959 including consumer education, health education, vocational education, special education, career education, and bilingual education. The ISBE found that elementary schools average about 5.5 hours per day in Illinois, and 6 hours for the high schools (School Day, School Year Mandates, 1983). Some districts reduced the length of the school day in response to declining resources. Wisconsin, a state with no minimum day requirement, and a K-12 school system, found that the five districts with the longest days averaged 6.7 hours; the five with the shortest days spent 5.7 hours in school. Based on the 1981-82 Census of Secondary School Course Offerings, 71 percent of the average instructional day in Illinois fell into the following six categories:

P.E. and Health	17.2%
Language Arts	16.6%
Mathematics	10.7%
Social Sciences	10.6%
Sciences	8.9%
Fine Arts	6.6%
	70.6%

Though comparable data are not available for Illinois' elementary schools, one national study (Caldwell, Huitt, and Graeber, 1982) shows that daily instructional time for reading ranges from 90 minutes (low) to two hours (average) to two and one half hours (high). Comparable figures for mathematics are 30, 45, and 60 minutes.

A variation in day length may also raise serious equity problems. The California State Board of Education (1982) for example, discovered that students of low socioeconomic status receive the fewest homework assignments in science and social studies. Furthermore, the most financially hard-pressed school districts in Illinois shortened the high school day from seven to five periods. Chicago dropped its summer school program after the 1980 fiscal crisis.

Efficient Time Utilization

For a variety of reasons, ranging from cost to public disapproval of longer school days or years, many school reform advocates and researchers urge the more efficient utilization of time. The Illinois Commission calls for better classroom/school management; however the only reforms relating to this objective which can be implemented are recommendations to improve the training of prospective administrators in a school climate, classroom learning environments, and discipline. The CTU proposals contained many specific proposals directed toward improving instructional time: a uniform discipline code, state auditing of teacher requests for the removal of students with chronic discipline problems, and master teachers for staff development in the area of discipline techniques.

Effective time utilization proposals stem from research on effective teaching showing that both poor time management and ineffective teaching strategies result in less engaged learning time, less content coverage, and lower student performance (Denham and Lieferman, 1980, Karweit, 1983). Walberg (1982) shows that time measured in minutes, and courses per academic year make a difference in achievement. David Wiley, Northwestern's Education Dean, claims that in addition to time use, homework should be viewed as instructional time (Educ. USA, May 7, 1984). He argues that more teacher-student contact and less seatwork would increase instruction time without day or year changes. Fewer electives and more content area courses accomplish the same objective. In addition to viewing time management as a zero-sum game, effective teachers may use inventive approaches to combine subject matter instruction with teaching reading skills, or using peer tutoring (Shulman, 1983).

While some time management policies are easily enacted (e.g., increase homework, reduce electives, outlaw seatwork), others are among the most difficult reforms to change through legislation or school policy. Better discipline and classroom management, for example, require changes in teacher behavior. Inservice and perhaps better personnel evaluation are the only tools available, and their effectiveness in changing teacher behavior is, at most, uncertain.

Cost Effectiveness

Fortunately, one of the only "true" cost effectiveness studies (i.e., the ratio of achievement gain to costs are compared for several alternatives) includes a study involving increased instructional time (Levin and Meister, 1984; Levin, Glass, and Meister, 1984). The specific intervention was the addition of one hour a day for instruction, half devoted to math, half to reading. Achievement data were obtained from the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Survey (BTES), sponsored by the National Institute of Education. Costs were estimated for the incremental teacher time spent on instruction, assuming that there were no extra materials, energy or administration costs. Based on 1981 national data, per pupil costs increased by $61 per pupil. Increasing instructional time was found to be more cost effective in raising reading achievement than reduced class size or adult tutoring, but less cost effective than computer assisted instruction or peer tutoring. Increasing instructional time was the least effective of the four strategies in improving math scores.

Existing Cost Estimates

The State Board of Education has never publicly recognized the possible expenses of extending the school day to 7 hours. Cost estimates from the Illinois Commission predicted that the cost of studying the possible extension of school day/year would be $516,000 statewide (about $500 per school district) without explanation. The Illinois Project for School Reform proposed the funding of 100 IEDP grants at an average cost of $25,000 for a total of $2.5 million, but recommends no other costs or cost savings.

Reform Cost Estimates

We offer the following cost estimates for consideration:

	Illinois	Chicago
1. High Cost (Chicago Model)	$1,440,000,000	$366,000,000
2. High Cost (ISBE Model)	491,847,000	132,148,000
3. Medium Cost	260,288,000	66,674,000
4. Low Cost	96,014,000	600,000

Given that no legislation appears to be specifically directed at raising the minimum school day/year mandates, we feel that the low cost estimates are most accurate.

Most of the cost calculations depend on the assumption that adding one hour a day increases the teacher work week of 44 hours (Status of American Public School Teachers, 1981) by 11 percent, at a cost of $19.57 an hour statewide, and $24.00 an hour in Chicago. The California and North Carolina expenses show that salaries will probably need to increase in proportion to the longer day or year. The hourly rates are based on salary plus those benefits related to salary such as retirement ($31,000 a year statewide, and $38,000 in Chicago). Costs of school day/year extensions are applied to 105,000 staff statewide and 23,000 in Chicago. Additional maintenance, administration, aides, etc., are not considered.

High Cost (Chicago Model). This configuration is based on Chicago's Design for Excellence recommendations. Based on 30 days additional to the 180 day school year, 17 percent more school days would be added. If 80 percent (about the proportion of a school budget devoted to personnel) of Chicago's $1.5 billion budget and the state's $6.2 billion budget is multiplied by .17, costs rise by $192 million in Chicago and $793 million statewide. Adding 1.5 hours to 210 school days adds $174 million in Chicago and $647 statewide. (Bringing all districts in the State up to 8 hours would add yet an additional $236 million.)

High Cost (ISBE Model). If, on the average, one hour were added to high schools and 1.5 hours to elementary school days, and assuming that two-thirds of teachers were elementary teachers, extra statewide costs would increase by $492 million, of which $133 million are in Chicago.

Medium Cost. These figures depend on the assumption that day length rises by an average of one-half hour per school district as an outcome of the state mandated study of school day length, IEDP grants, the return of financial stability to some districts, or increased teacher salaries. Chicago costs would be $66 million plus $100,000 in study costs, and a $500,000 IEDP grant. State costs of $245 million would also add $516,000 in study costs, $2.5 million in IEDP grants. Another $12.4 million is subtracted to represent a 2 percent cost savings for districts (representing 10 percent of the $6.2 million state budget) that adopt a 4-day week.

Low Cost Estimates. State costs are calculated the same as for medium cost estimates, except only an average of 15 minutes a day is added to non-Chicago district school days. Chicago is assumed to study the issues ($100,000) and get a $500,000 IEDP grant, but not lengthen the school day/year.

Low Cost (Chicago Summer School). These estimates utilize the RCM cost model to determine the cost of providing two classes for each of 32,000 students--the number of students having failed two or more courses during the previous year -- in classes averaging 20 students each (the target class size in the RCM for basic classes). Teachers get paid for two-thirds of their $28,000 annual salary for eight weeks. Benefits are already paid over the ten month year. Added to the teacher cost of $187 per pupil are: supplies and equipment, $19.80, the accounting price for building space, $12.50, program support, $19 per pupil, and school administration costs, $64 per pupil. The total comes to $302 per pupil or $9.6 million overall.

D. PERSONNEL EVALUATION

10. Teacher Training and Certification

Several themes run through the various proposals to reform teacher training and certification: raising training standards, testing education graduates for certification, and merging Chicago's Board of Examiners with the State Certification Board.

The State Board of Education's (ISBE) proposals suggest more rigorous and uniform standards for admission to and retention in teacher training. The ISBE wants Institutions of Higher Education (IHEs) to annually assess the quality of new candidates for certification. Both of these initiatives need no new enabling legislation. The Board of Higher Education, once interested in increasing teacher training standards, instead has focused on increasing all college admissions standards. The ISBE, the Chicago Teachers Union, and the Illinois Project for School Reform all want the Chicago Board of Examiners, an agency of the Chicago school system responsible for the testing and certification of Chicago teachers, to merge with the state teacher certification system.

The Illinois Project for School Reform's call for a minimum American College Testing (ACT) score of 19 to qualify for teacher training is among the most stringent reforms. The Project also wants a communications skills test, prepared by the ISBE, to be given prior to teacher training as well as a Grade Point Average (GPA) of 2.8 (C+). Certification would require a passing grade in student teaching and a full-year internship (under a "mentor") -- paid as a regular beginning teacher -- before certification. On the other hand, the Illinois Project wants more flexible certification standards for experienced workers with special expertise. Additionally, the Project recommends that the Illinois Board of Higher Education encourages local institutions to create special programs to train business people who want to teach in public schools, modeled on Harvard's recent initiative. The Illinois Project's draft report suggested recertification every four years conditioned on individual participation in regional Professional Development Councils' programs. The final report omits this section and no other reform proposal takes up the issue of periodic recertification for teachers.

The Illinois Commission focuses almost entirely on using a basic skills test for those entering teacher training and an examination, given by an agency other than the training institution, for certification. The Chicago Teachers Union also supports a basic skills test prior to entering teaching and one for certification. The Governor's only proposal for improving standards for those entering the profession is a

"Bar Exam" for teachers administered by the Teacher Certification Board.

"The Group" basically endorses the proposals of the Illinois Commission. The teacher training and certification reform agenda described in Chicago's proposed long range plan (Designs for Excellence, 1984) focuses mostly on local issues: 1) abolish the Chicago Board of Examiners; 2) combine K-3 and 4-8 certificates; 3) repeal the Chicago residency rule for new teachers, and 4) require one year internships (at regular pay) before being assigned. Chicago United's "Agenda for Public Education" (1983), along with the ISBE, emphasizes the responsibility of districts to recruit the most qualified candidates. The report recommended raising the National Teachers Examination qualifying scores (taken by prospective elementary teachers in Chicago) to the top one-third of those assessed and also proposes a one-year, paid internship in a teacher aide status. The Citizens Schools Committee (1982) school accountability study called for the testing of prospective teachers (especially in speaking, reading, and writing English), testing of current teachers, and testing of teachers every five years in order to renew their certificate.

Background

Henry Barnard (1851) identified the weaknesses of 19th-century normal schools as accepting improperly prepared students who lacked the aptitude for teaching. The concern with teacher quality surfaced in the 1950s with Arthur Bestor's (1953) attack on the "anti-intellectual" intellectual profession, a position formalized in the founding of the American Council on Basic Education. Though James Conant's influential American High School Today, published in 1959, failed to address teachers or teacher education, a subsequent two-year study (Conant, 1963), The Education of the American Teacher, reflected a concern that not all teachers could be drawn from the upper one-third of their high school class.

The challenge to improve the quality of the teaching force emerged again in the 1980's. The National Commission on Excellence in Education found that too many teachers came from the bottom quarter of graduating high school students, they took too many educational methods courses, they were not paid enough, and many unqualified teachers taught in certain subject matter areas. A special task force of the politically moderate Twentieth Century Fund urged a federally-funded program for "master teachers" and accused teachers unions of transforming what had once been a noble, though poorly compensated profession into a craft led by collective bargaining organizations with a focus on bread and butter issues -- wages, working conditions, and job security. The

Education Commission of the States Task Force on Education for Economic Growth urged states and school districts to "dramatically improve methods for recruiting, training, and paying teachers."

The public's attitudes on the issues of raising standards and testing teachers appear to be conflicting. On the one hand, 89 percent of the public supports state board examinations of teachers (Phi Delta Kappan, Sept., 1984) -- the highest approval rating of any reform studied in the 1984 Gallup Survey of Public Attitudes toward Public Education. On the other hand, only 27 percent of the public favors raising college admissions standards -- the lowest approval rating for any reform in the 1984 Gallup survey. Though the latter question does not address the specific issue of admission to teacher training programs, the two opinions reflect the unwillingness of the public to bar access to higher education.

Led by the South, about 30 states have now adopted teacher competency tests, and 20 have begun to use the tests (Educ. Week, Feb. 15, 1984). Another 12 states, including Illinois, are studying the issue. All but three of the state testing programs were enacted after 1977. Policies in 25 states require testing for certification and 17 for admission to teacher training. Basic skills tests are used in 25 states, 20 assess professional knowledge, and 19 assess subject matter knowledge. Some 13 states use commercial tests exclusively, and 11 states rely only on internally developed tests. Only Arkansas plans to require that current teachers take the test. Teachers generally support these tests, but as Albert Shanker (President of the American Federation of Teachers) argues, the cut scores in most states are too low to ensure competent teachers (Educ. Week, Feb. 15, 1984).

In Kentucky, for example, officials expect the National Teachers Examination cut scores adopted by the state to screen out about 12 percent of applicants. The Virginia cut scores on the NTE should screen out about 8 percent on the first administration of the test. In California, on the other hand, about 30 percent fail the basic skills test for teacher certification, and applications for credentials fell by 25 percent from 1981-82 levels. When Chicago hired elementary teachers a few years ago, the NTE cutoff was the 12th percentile according to National norms.

Competency exams for prospective teachers proved devastating for minority applicants in several states. About 83 percent of first time test takers pass all of Florida's basic skills tests for teacher certification, but only 32 to 37 percent of Black applicants, and 47-49 percent of Hispanic applicants pass. A preliminary study in Tennessee shows that while only 4 percent of White applicants would not pass the NTE cut scores adopted by the state, 22 percent of Black applicants would fail. Nearly half of teacher education applicants in South Carolina flunk the basic skills test, and the failure rate was as high as 85 or 90 percent at some Black colleges. Failure rates of minority candidates on Arizona's basic skills test range up to 66 percent. The Louisiana experience shows the long run implications of teacher testing on minorities. Only about 10 percent of Black candidates from Black institutions passed during the 1978-82 period, and only 28 percent of Blacks from predominantly White institutions passed. During this period, only 211 Blacks passed the test in a state that has a one-third Black school population. The standards have been relaxed, and currently prospective teachers need only score above the 15th percentile to pass the communications section, the 22nd percentile to pass the general knowledge section, and the 20th percentile to pass the professional knowledge section.

A number of states eased or plan to ease requirements for teacher certification for non-education majors. An experimental program in Maine, aimed at mid-career changes to teaching for those with a liberal arts degree, involves a 6 week summer session with 8 weeks of independent study, and student teaching internships supervised by a master teacher. A New Jersey proposal would allow certification based on passing a test and a one year apprenticeship. A Vermont plan would set up special institutes to train liberal arts graduates to be teachers over a one year period. In Illinois, a liberal arts graduate can obtain a high school certificate during a year of full-time study. Oregon, California, Florida, New Jersey, New York City, Texas, and Virginia are also exploring alternative certification routes (Educ. Week, Oct. 17, 1984). Even the Council of Chief State School Officers has urged states to write new certification laws and regulations that do not require prospective teachers to take undergraduate education courses. Ted Sanders, Illinois' new State Superintendent but then Nevada's State Superintendent, chaired the committee that wrote the report.

Teacher Education and Certification in Illinois

The state's role in training and certification consists mostly of establishing required areas of study and the length and character of practical experience. Colleges and universities maintain responsibility for assessing individuals completing programs and conforming to state requirements. Requirements vary extensively at the 58 teacher training institutions in Illinois. Typically, to enroll in an Illinois four-year institution, one must be in the top half of the graduating class and exceed a college admissions test cut score (e.g., a cutoff score or qualifying score) that varies from institution to institution. The University of Illinois' new ACT standard is 15, compared to a nationwide average of 18.3 in 1984.

Typically, a student needs a C or C+ average in liberal arts courses taken during the first year or two of college to be admitted to the teacher training program (A Study of the Quality of the Preparation and Performance of Illinois Educational Personnel, 1983). About one-third of institutions require proficiency in writing, 20 percent in reading, and less than 20 percent in mathematics. In most institutions, students transferring from community colleges -- 10 to 50 percent of all teacher education candidates, depending on the institutions -- need only demonstrate a "C" average in their previous higher education ("A Study of the Quality of the Preparation and Performance of Illinois Educational Personnel," 1983). A national survey indicates that 75 percent of student teachers get "A"s, and another 20 percent receive "B"s (Johnson and Yates, 1982). Only about one percent fail student teaching.

Currently, basic admission standards are established by individual colleges and universities. Prospective teacher education candidates at Northern Illinois University must pass a basic skills test to enter the program. Though little empirical evidence exists to suggest that teacher education students failing to meet standards at one institution transfer to schools with lower academic standards, considerable anecdotal evidence supports this movement. In particular, Chicago State University and some private institutions are known to take such students. University of Chicago Professor Gary Orfield, in a report to the Illinois Senate Committee on Higher Education, found that Chicago teachers are more likely to come from the state's two least selective teacher training institutions -- Chicago State University and Northeastern University. Both schools were once teacher training institutions owned by the Chicago Board of Education. A uniform statewide basic skills test for entry to teacher education programs, therefore, would likely have a differential impact on teacher training institutions, and a differential impact on Chicago schools which draw many teachers from the state's least selective teacher training institutions.

The Illinois State Board of Education shies away from using tests for certification for several reasons:

-- From a psychometric perspective, tests do not measure skills as well as they measure content knowledge.

- -- Usually there is no objective way to establish levels of proficiency, as shown by the wide variation among states in passing rates.
- -- High standards create shortages, while low standards do not distinguish among applicants.
- -- The impact on minorities in Illinois is uncertain.
- -- Criteria reference test development may be expensive. Though a basic skills test might cost $75,000 to $150,000 to develop, if it only costs $30,000 to develop a test of knowledge and skills in a specific teaching specialization, the total bill rises to $1.5 million for the approximately 50 teaching specializations in Illinois.
- -- Significant and complex legal issues may arise.

A study by the Southern Regional Education Board shows that teachers without pedagogy courses (e.g., those with provisional or temporary certification) scored higher than the graduates of teacher training institutions on the professional education portion of the NTE (Educ. Week, May 9, 1984).

The Teacher Quality Debate

Virtually every study of school effectiveness finds some teacher attributes significantly related to student achievement, according to economist Richard Murnane (1981). In particular, the intellectual skills of a teacher, as measured by a verbal ability test, or the quality of the college attended by the teacher, tend to be statistically significant. Using data from the mid 1960s, Levin (1970) found that a one point gain in teacher verbal ability (test mean=23.98) was associated with a .175 point gain in student verbal ability (test mean=26.68), controlling for other variables. In other words, hiring a teacher that scores 10 percent better than average would lead students to score 1.7 percent better than average. Since verbal ability is less costly to buy than experience, Levin found that obtaining teachers with more verbal ability was five times more cost effective for Black students than buying teachers with experience, and 10 times more effective for White students.

A variety of poorly substantiated "myths" fuel the current teacher quality debate. According to a Chicago Tribune article (October 16, 1983) titled "Teaching Losing Its Appeal to the Best and the Brightest," teachers "are at the bottom of the social ladder. . . the lack of appeal that teaching holds for the brightest college students is one of the most worrisome problems," and standardized test scores of prospective teachers have declined for ten years. Yet the article failed to present even journalistic evidence showing that teaching ever appealed to a greater proportion of the brighter students, or that the test scores of prospective teachers declined more rapidly than those for other college students.

Analyzed according to percentile ranks, the mean SAT-Verbal scores of seniors intending to major in education ranked in the 38th percentile of the mean for all test takers in 1981, a mere drop of 2 percentiles from the 40th percentile in 1973. SAT-Math scores for planned education majors declined from the 40th percentile to the 35th percentile over the same time period. In contrast, the average college-bound senior in 1981 would have scored only in the 42nd percentile of the 1972 test takers based on the SAT-V scores, and in the 45th percentile according to the SAT-M scores. It appears that lower test scores for prospective education majors primarily reflect the lower scores of all college-bound seniors rather than a flight of the talented from education. Furthermore, the most recent SAT data show a slight gain for planned education majors relative to all college-bound students. Trends in ACT test data in the mid 1970s indicate that prospective education majors fare a little better compared to the average college-bound senior than on the SAT tests (Weaver, 1978). The ACT, widely used in the Midwest, tends to emphasize "achievement" and the SAT, "aptitude."

Though the score decline for planned education majors exceeds the general decline by a small margin, dramatic enrollment shifts among subfields of education (e.g., a higher proportion of elementary and physical education majors and many fewer secondary majors) explain much of the more rapid decline. Typically, prospective secondary education majors score 5 to 10 percentiles higher than elementary and physical education majors. Furthermore, SAT scores in all fields fell faster for women than men during the 1970s, and women comprise 75 percent of prospective education majors.

Data based on prospective education majors among college-bound high school seniors may prove faulty. Teaching plans are relatively poor predictors of teacher attainment according to Lyson and Falk (1984) in their study of the National Longitudinal Survey (NLS) of 1972 high school seniors. Typically, almost half of those becoming teachers reported other occupational plans in high school, and 75 percent of those expecting teaching careers in high school end up doing something else. The researchers show that academic ability as measured by SAT scores was much higher for those actually becoming teachers than for prospective teachers who dropped out of teacher preparation.

According to the National Longitudinal Survey (NLS), ACT scores rank teachers (members of the high school class of 1972 who taught sometime between Fall 1976 and Fall 1979) in the 67th percentile of college-bound seniors according to the ACT-English score, and the 59th percentile on the ACT-Mathematics score (Nelson, 1984). Comparable SAT data ranks the average teacher in the 55th percentile. The average class rank percentile of teachers, the 68th percentile, almost equaled the average college graduate's high school rank percentile, the 69th percentile. The ACT tends to emphasize "achievement" and the SAT "aptitude," though both measure a mixture of aptitude and achievement. The near equality of teacher and college graduate high school class rank percentiles may reflect the "achievement" orientation of teachers.

Some data give an idea of trends in the academic aptitude of teachers. Schlechty and Vance (1982) found a decline of 5 percentiles from the 1973 mean National Teachers Examination scores for 1980 teachers in North Carolina. On a national basis, Weaver (1981) reported a five percentile decline from the 1969 NTE score for 1975 test takers. In both instances, the decline was less than the decline in college entrance test scores for the college-bound.

Little solid evidence supports the contention that colleges of education lowered academic standards in response to the market downturn of the '70s, and some direct evidence indicates that both admissions and graduation standards increased. Schlechty and Vance (1983) argue that many policy makers and legislative groups assume that teacher training institutions have already chosen to admit more low-scoring students to offset enrollment decline and that this belief is the basis for enacting teacher testing programs. Though high quality institutions may have suffered enrollment declines due to the individual choices of high scoring students, Schlechty and Vance also argue that lower quality institutions cannot increase the number of low scoring teachers they produce because they have always admitted most applicants.

The National Center for Educational Statistics reports that 75 percent of education schools or colleges raised entrance criteria in the 5 years previous to 1982, and 85 percent claim to have made the curriculum more rigorous (Condition of Education, 1983). Raising standards presumably results in more competitive graduates in the job market, and in some instances, state governments have been exerting pressure to raise standards over the past decade, not just in the last two years.

Policy Impact

Vance and Schlechty (1982) claim that if prospective education majors among high school seniors were required to have at least the SAT-V score of the average college graduate (excluding education majors), fully 75 percent would be unable to meet the criteria. By lowering the minimum criteria to the score of the average college-bound senior, 63 percent would not be admitted. If only requiring a score exceeding the 25th percentile of college-bound seniors, 35 percent of the current pool of prospective education majors could not make the cutoff. Excluding the 35 percent of high school seniors intending to major in education who are least academically able would reduce college graduates certified to teach by only about 25 percent, because the least able are the most likely to fail in college. Based on NLS data, the average graduate qualified to teach gained 10 percentile points on the prospective education major and scored the same as the average college-bound senior intending an education major.

A variety of evidence indicates that Illinois high school seniors score at about the national average on college entrance tests, so these nationwide data probably apply closely to Illinois. For institutions like Northeastern University and Chicago State University, however, requiring the score of the average college-bound senior (ACT=18.3) would shut down teacher training. Even assuming that prospective teachers score the same as the average freshman -- an ACT score of 14 at Northeastern and 13 at Chicago State (Chicago Tribune, Sept. 9, 1984) -- only about 15 percent would make the cutoff at Chicago State, and 20 percent at Northeastern. Somewhere between one-quarter and one-third of Chicago teachers come from these institutions.

During the 1970s, a reduction in the pool of potential graduates would not have seriously aggravated the supply-demand imbalance. In the 1980s, however, such a reduction would wreak havoc. Though supply exceeded demand during the first few years in the decade, NCES projects a balance, or slight shortage, for the rest of the 1980s, even if the number of new graduates eligible to teach does not continue to decline (Condition of Education, 1983). Enrollments in Illinois reveal school entry of the baby-boom generation's children. The 1983 fourth grade class of 125,000 is the smallest in the last 25 years, while the first grade enrolls more than 142,000. Birth rates suggest public school enrollment exceeding 150,000 per grade in future years. Even in the buyer's market of the late 1970s, the Louisiana experience illustrates problems associated with raising standards. A 47 percent "failure" rate for prospective teachers taking the NTE led to threats of a teacher shortage (Pearson, 1981). The state quickly allowed temporary certification for those scoring within 10 percent of the cutoff. Of the 47 percent falling below the original cutoff, half would be within the 10 percent allowance. In January of 1984, the Louisiana State Superintendent of Education announced plans to lower test score cutoffs. "We can close the gap between the demand and the supply of teachers by lowering scores," he said (Educ. Week, June 6, 1984). Thus, when the issue is how to attract enough teachers, a choice is often made for lower quality rather than higher pay. Cutoff scores will be lowered on French (from the 43rd to the 25th percentile), mathematics (from the 68th to the 39th percentile), social studies (from the 40th to the 34th percentile), and business education (from the 43rd to the 25th percentile).

Chicago Board of Examiners

Chicago, like most large city school systems in the United States, developed teacher certification systems at the end of the 19th century far in advance of its rural counterparts. Illinois state teacher certification began only in 1917. Teacher certification helped free the newly developing teaching profession from neighborhood politics and the political machines that controlled most large cities and their schools. Even today, Chicago boasts of having stricter certification standards than does the state, primarily because every teacher is supposed to take a test to be certified in Chicago.

With the nationwide emphasis on testing prospective teachers, one would expect that the Chicago Board of Examiners and the Chicago testing requirements could be held out as a model for the state of Illinois. In fact, the National Teachers Examination was first initiated by a consortium of large city schools, including Chicago, in the 1940s. Elementary teachers normally still take the NTE in Chicago. Instead, the Illinois Project for School Reform, the Illinois State Board of Education, and the Chicago Teachers Union want the state to assume the duties of the Chicago Board of Examiners. Chicago's proposed long-range plan (Designs for Excellence, 1984) also proposed merging the two certification systems. Historically the Chicago Board has resisted attempts to merge the systems.

The Illinois Project for School Reform insists that the $500,000 supporting the Chicago Board of Examiners is wasteful. Similarly, the ISBE argues that the system is archaic, duplicative, and inconsistent with state certification. Probably not much of the entire $500,000 budget, currently paid from the education fund, however, would be saved since the state would have to pick up many of the duties of the Board of Examiners. The ISBE and the CTU want current teachers to exchange their Chicago certificates for state certificates over a three year period. Presumably, administrative certificates would also be involved in the exchange. While the course work requirements for teachers in both certification systems resemble each other closely, the administrative requirements diverge considerably. Principals in Chicago, for example, do not need a masters degree in administration, while principals in the rest of the state do not need to pass a test.

The ISBE also argues that the State's dual certification system restricts employment mobility. The mobility argument also provides a rationale for Chicago's position in its proposed long-range plan that the residency rule for newly hired teachers be repealed. The proposed long-range plan's major rationale for deleting the Board of Examiners is that Chicago State and Northeastern focus on the special certification requirements in Chicago, thus explaining why the majority of Chicago teachers come from these two institutions. Orfield's study, however, indicates that only one-quarter to one-third of Chicago teachers come from the two institutions (Chicago Tribune, Sept. 9, 1984). The Chicago Teachers Union contends that a single statewide certification agency would put Chicago teachers on an equal competitive footing with the rest of the state.

The experience of the Board of Examiners also illustrates the pitfalls of teacher testing. In a study of the Bilingual Teacher Endorsement Procedures of the Chicago Board of Examiners, performed by the Center for Applied Linguistics (Gray, 1984), the following problems were identified:

1) The essay examination and oral interviews required the evaluator to exercise great personal judgment, thus lowering test reliability. Many evaluators just used their own criteria.
2) Psychometrically invalid tests.
3) No criteria for selecting evaluators except that they had themselves been endorsed as bilingual teachers.
4) The possibility of memorizing answers to the written part of the exam.
5) Lack of post-test information on subsequent performance.
6) Absence of a bilingual staff person on a Board of Examiners that is overworked and overburdened. Over the past decade, the Board endorsed 2,500 bilingual teachers, but it processes as many as 10,000 applications a year.

While elementary teachers take the National Teachers Examination, various other exams are offered to high school and special education personnel depending on their subject area. Chicago has surely not invested the $1.5 million the

ISBE estimates it would cost to develop valid subject matter exams across the varying teaching specialties. Often, one can maneuver around the exams by working as a full-time basis substitute (FTB) for a number of years. In the early 1970s, a large number of full-time substitutes, hired during the teacher shortage of the 1960s, were given certification even though they could not pass the relevant tests (Peterson, 1976).

The exam for principals in Chicago has always been a subject of controversy. In the 1930s, passing the exam often hinged on enrolling in special courses taught by important Chicago school officials (Peterson, 1976). The exam has been used to secure greater representation of Blacks, Hispanics and women in administrative positions. In 1983, the most recent administration of the exam, only 168 of the 1,575 adults who took the written portion of the exam "passed" -- 98 Whites, 58 Blacks, and 11 Hispanics (Chicago Tribune, Aug. 29, 1983). The exam, prepared with the assistance of the Educational Testing Service, was very job specific and related highly to a "two pound" pre-exam booklet.

The manipulation of exam scores and the subjectivity of oral interviews indicates the potential value of exams in adjusting to labor market needs -- just as the Certified Public Accountant's exam cut scores are raised and lowered to make labor market adjustments. Instead of excluding minorities for the principalship, oral and written tests can be used to promote their advancement. Similarly, the low standards for evaluating bilingual teachers probably reflect the severe shortage of teachers in this arena. On the other hand, the New York Board of Examiners was nearly abolished in the 1960s because prospective teachers failed to wait for the 3 to 6 months it took to become certified. In Chicago, the infrequent administration of tests and other problems with certification often send prospective candidates to other school systems.

Existing Cost Estimates

Despite the cataclysmic financial implications of the entrance standards proposed by the Illinois Project for School Reform, recognition of the financial costs is absent. The ISBE proposals, on the other hand, are so generalized that, perhaps appropriately, they generate no new costs. Though it is doubtful that eliminating the Chicago Board of Examiners would save any money, about $500,000 from Chicago's education fund could be reallocated. The State Teacher Certification Board would have to pick up many of the duties currently performed by the Board of Examiners, such as transcript evaluation and bilingual teacher endorsement testing -- the only certification area requiring teacher testing at the state level.

The only existing cost estimates in the teacher training and certification area, essentially those performed for the Illinois Commission, focus on test costs. For the basic skills test proposed for entrance to teacher training, all but $40,000 (to determine the validity of the cut score) is assumed to be borne by applicants. For the estimated 8,000 students entering teacher training, at $30 per test, all applicants would pay $240,000. Costs would rise substantially if the state developed its own tests. Texas reports spending $1.12 million to develop and implement a certification examination. The Illinois Commission estimates that certification test costs would total $782,000 for the 17,000 applicants at $46 per test, the cost of the National Teachers Examination. This number includes teacher training graduates, teacher transfers from out of state and some teachers changing fields. Other ISBE cost estimates indicate that the cost of developing separate tests for about 50 different certification areas would cost at least $1.5 million (A Study of the Quality of the Preparation and Performance of Illinois Educational Personnel, 1983).

Reform Cost Estimates

The following cost estimates address the cost of testing, internships for new teachers, and the salary increases needed to maintain the current level of entry to teaching given higher admissions standards to teacher training. Allowing easier entrance to the teaching profession for experienced workers, or allowing part-time teachers, may have a small effect on the aptitude-salary relationship, but such effects are not considered. Furthermore, merging the Chicago Board of Examiners with the State Teacher Certification Board is assumed to result in no new costs or savings.

	Illinois	Chicago
Low Cost (test-taking costs)	$ 1,095,000*	$ 0*
Medium Cost (full-year internships)	3,945,353	831,111
High Cost (Illinois Project for School Reform's admission standards	713,000,000	167,200,000**

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* All but $73,000 borne by applicants

**Would overlap with Teacher Compensation Section

Low Cost Plan. This figure is the cost estimate of the Illinois Commission for 8,000 prospective teachers to take a $30 basic skills test, and for 17,000 graduates seeking certification to take the $46 National Teachers Examination.

Medium Cost Plan. These costs are the same as the new teacher portion of the Toledo plan cost estimates detailed in the personnel evaluation section of this report. They represent the costs of a full-time substitute teacher at the beginning salary to free the time of master teachers. With a caseload of 10 intern teachers, 175 master teachers statewide and 35 master teachers in Chicago would be needed.

High Cost Plan. To the extent that higher admission standards and certification tests actually prevent prospective teachers with low measured academic ability from entering the profession, high salaries are needed to attract more talented students to the profession. The Illinois Project for School Reform gave the only explicit criteria -- an ACT composite score of 19 for admission to teacher training. Since this figure is about the same as the average for all college-bound seniors (18.3), at least 65 percent of college-bound seniors intending to major in education would fail to gain admission (if Illinois reflects national level data). At Northeastern and Chicago State, the figure would be about 80-85 percent. Roughly 55 percent of those who currently begin teaching, however, score above the average test score of the college-bound.

According to the National Bureau of Economic Research (Mansky, 1985), in an econometric study based on the NLS data, beginning salaries would have to rise by 20 percent to maintain the same supply of teachers if cut scores were raised to the average score of all college-bound seniors. The cost estimate of $713 million represent a 20 percent increase over the average salary and retirement benefits (but excluding other benefits) of $31,000 statewide, and $38,000 in Chicago for 115,000 classroom teachers and pupil personnel staff. Salary increases for about 6,000 administrators are not included even though their salaries are usually keyed to teacher settlements. In the pupil personnel section of this report, a 16.3 percent across-the-board salary increase -- the amount necessary to bring the average beginning salary to $20,000 in 1987-88 -- is estimated to cost $861 million when accounting for anticipated administrator and non-certified personnel salary increases. California's experience (California Tax Foundation, 1985) illustrated the difficulty of attempting to raise beginning salaries without shifting the entire salary schedule and administrator salaries.

Chicago estimates assume that the schools draw from the same pool of applicants as in the rest of the state. Since Chicago hires so many more minorities and draws on the state's least selective teacher training institutions, a 20 percent salary boost probably falls far short of that needed to attract the predominately non-minority students from more selective schools.

11. Evaluation of Personnel

The central theme of all major reforms aimed at personnel evaluation is an adoption of a formal evaluation plan aimed personnel evaluation. According to ISBE data (A Study of the Quality of the Preparation and Performance of Illinois Educational Personnel, 1983), 25 percent of districts report not using standardized instruments in evaluating teachers, and 20 percent have no specific written criteria for evaluation. Less than half of the districts report using standardized instruments or written criteria for evaluation of nonteaching personnel. Specifically, the ISBE recommends at least one annual evaluation for all tenured teachers and four written evaluations per year for new teachers (Annual Report, 1984). The ISBE also links evaluation of new teachers with staff development. Former Superintendent Donald Gill proposed that the State allocate $1,000 per new teachers and $500 per re-entering teacher for staff development (Reference Note 2).

While the Governor recommends one formal assessment per year for tenured teachers, the Illinois Commission recommends two formal assessments per year. While the Illinois Project for School Reform recommended no specific number, it endorsed the Toledo (Ohio) evaluation plan that focuses primarily on new teachers, and also a few tenured teachers targeted for "intervention." Peer review is an important component of this plan. The CTU endorsed a Toledo-type approach directed primarily at new teachers and those receiving negative evaluations and emphasized peer review. Though the Governor fails to propose a written evaluation plan for each district, evaluation provisions would be an important component in the performance-based pay programs for which the Governor proposes $10 million in planning grants.

The Illinois Commission and the CTU call for a program to train administrators to evaluate personnel more effectively, while the ISBE proposes expanded funding for the one year old Illinois Principals Academy. The Illinois Commission offers two specific proposals to improve the teacher dismissal process: 1) a permanent three person teacher dismissal board rather than the present hearing officer system, and 2) not allowing "nonprejudicial error" as a basis for reinstating dismissed teachers. Additionally, the Commission wants a public awareness campaign of teacher retention and evaluation issues. Alone among the various proposals, the ISBE proposes that local districts should develop procedures to hire quality personnel in the first place.

"The Group", a coalition comprised mostly of large city school systems including Chicago, opposes the three person teacher dismissal board and clearly specifies that the principal is the instructional leader, presumably implying that evaluation of educational personnel should remain the responsibility of the principal. Testimony before the ISBE indicated that the IEA supported state board personnel evaluation plans, but emphasized peer review (Reference Note 4). The AFT emphasized the need to negotiate evaluation at the local level. The Illinois Principals Association argued that principals' work load may not allow annual evaluations of tenured personnel and quarterly evaluation of new teachers since diversion from other administrative tasks would be required. The Illinois Association of School Boards argued that the ISBE provisions may be too prescriptive.

Chicago's teacher evaluation plan would satisfy the basic tenets of the ISBE and Illinois Commission's proposals (e.g., annual written evaluations using standardized instruments written criteria for evaluation, and procedures for dismissing teachers except quadrennial evaluation of new teachers. The usefulness of such procedures, however, is revealed in the recommendations of the proposed five year plan (Designs for Excellence, 1984):

-- Eliminate the practice of "dumping" problem teachers through administrative transfers.

-- Establish detailed requirements for helping teachers rated as "unsatisfactory."

-- Establish clear, objective, and reasonable systems of measuring teachers' performance through a result orientation.

No recommendation, however, provided an alternative to "dumping" or resources for remediation (such as external evaluators to free principals of the time-consuming dismissal procedures and remediation efforts).

Of 92 recommendations made in the Citizens School Committee (1982) school accountability study, ten were directed at teacher evaluation, six at principal evaluation, and eleven at removing ineffective staff. Teachers would be evaluated by students and through classroom observation by peers such as department chairs (quarterly), assistant principals (biennially), and the principals (annually for at least 40 minutes). All ratings would be in writing and based primarily on classroom performance and student achievement. The "superior" rating could be given only to teachers whose students gained at least one year in growth over the year -- except in classrooms officially designated as special.

Chicago United's Agenda for Public Education (1983) proposed that teacher evaluation could be improved by training those presently involved in evaluation, primarily principals, and by having evaluators spend more time on evaluation activities. Additionally, the report recommended removing, or the remediation of, teachers through peer counseling, close supervision of a master teacher, outplacement counseling, or new certification procedures (e.g. renewable certificates).

Background

The National Commission on Excellence in Education proposed that, "Salary, promotion, tenure and retention decisions should be tied to an effective evaluation system that includes peer review so that superior teachers can be rewarded, average ones encouraged, and poor ones terminated," (p. 30). President Reagan's endorsement of merit pay brought the recommendations into the limelight. Subsequently, former Secretary of Education Terrence Bell formally endorsed a peer review model for managing systems of performance-based pay (Educ. Week, March 14, 1984). Furthermore, in June 1983, the Education Commission of the State's report (Action for Excellence, 1983) reiterated these recommendations, stressing especially the areas of teacher competence, and renewal of respect for teaching as a profession.

At the state level, teacher evaluation issues often connect to the performance-based pay issue (Educ. Week, March 21, 1984). To become a master teacher in Florida a teacher must have no unexcused absence in two of the past three years, pass a subject matter exam, hold a masters degree, and pass a three person (two of whom are teachers) evaluation. Florida, Georgia, and Oklahoma evaluate first year teachers using similar three-person teams. Houston pays its teachers partly based on student achievement (but use statistical models to measure deviations from "expected" achievement), and the Governor of Arkansas announced his intention to evaluate teachers based on student performance.

Dade County is focusing more attention on the principal as the classroom evaluator with the specific intention of dismissing incompetent teachers (Educ. Week, March 21, 1984). Between 1981 and 1983, the school system (about half the size of Chicago's) tried to oust 280 teachers for inadequate performance, but two-thirds of the cases were thrown out of court for procedural violations. A principal in the pilot program claims that she will spend 180 hours a year (136 in the classroom) in evaluation activities. Even in this case, classroom observation is only about 9 percent of the principal's time.

Teacher tenure rights provided a major battle ground for educational reform in California with the Governor and Republican legislators demanding some relaxation of tenure laws in return for a massive infusion of new money. The final law, however, required only that local districts:

1) Certify principals as trained evaluators
2) Meet the training and evaluation needs of new teachers
3) Annually evaluate employees with unsatisfactory evaluations
4) Require training for teachers rated as unsatisfactory

All of these provisions either existed as part of local policy, or had minimal impact on the 25 California districts surveyed by the California Taxpayers Foundation (1985). Most activity centered on principal training in evaluation. School officials were skeptical of the legislation seeking to improve their ability to dismiss incompetent teachers.

According to A Study of the Quality of the Preparation and Performance of Illinois Education Personnel (April, 1983), a set of staff recommendations presented to the ISBE Planning and Policy Committee, more than 20 percent of districts in Illinois do not use standardized teacher evaluation instruments and have not developed specific written criteria for teacher evaluations. Less than half of Illinois districts use standardized instruments to evaluate noninstructional staff, and less than 60 percent use written criteria in the evaluation of noninstructional staff.

When evaluating teachers, more than 75 percent of Illinois school districts considered professional competence, professional attitude, relations with peers, and relations with parents. About 60 percent reported using student achievement as an evaluation criterion. Administrator evaluation typically included professional competence, professional attitude, relationships with peers and with parents. Less than 30 percent of districts use student achievement in administrator evaluations. In the area of remediation of unsatisfactory performance, the report found that 80-90 percent of districts use a written plan if performance is judged unsatisfactory, frequently coupled with supervisory conferences and more frequent evaluations in cases of continued unsatisfactory performance.

About 10 percent of Illinois districts reported dismissing tenured teachers, and about 30 percent reported voluntary termination as a result of unsatisfactory performance. Approximately 40 percent reported dismissal or voluntary leaving by probationary teachers. An extrapolation of the survey's data indicates that among about 100,000 teachers in Illinois, nearly 80 tenured teachers are dismissed each year, and 250 leave voluntarily for unsatisfactory performance. Among probationary teachers, the extrapolated data suggest that about 530 per year are dismissed, and 360 leave voluntarily due to unsatisfactory performance. The latter figures, however, seem exaggerated given that only about 1,700 to 2,000 enter teaching in Illinois each year.

A study in California confirms the widespread utilization of informal teacher removal (Educ. Week, May 2, 1984). Nearly every administrator contacted in the study had dismissed at least one teacher through counseling and low performance ratings, and one claimed to have forced seven resignations in a two year period. The researchers concluded that the low incidence of formal dismissal actions against teachers may not be caused by "timid" school officials.

Triggered by the increasing interest in teacher evaluation, the National Institute of Education funded the Rand Corporation to undertake a survey of teacher evaluation practices in 32 school districts (Wise, Darling-Hammond, McLaughlin, and Bernstein, 1984) and case studies in four districts (Salt Lake City, Utah; Lake Washington, Washington; Greenwich, Connecticut; and Toledo, Ohio). Four factors that made these systems work were 1) organizational commitment, 2) evaluator competence, 3) collaboration between administrators and teachers in developing and implementing evaluation procedures, and 4) strategic compatibility (i.e. no evaluation system can serve alone as the tactical glue for diverse approaches to school improvement).

The five major problems with teacher evaluation found in the study were: lack of competency of principals as evaluators, teacher resistance or apathy, lack of consistency of evaluation practices throughout the system, inadequate evaluator training, and the difficulty of using generalist evaluators to evaluate specialist teachers. The report concludes that to succeed, teacher evaluation systems must fit the particular bureaucratic constraints of the district and have top-level commitment to and resources for evaluation, rather than focusing simply on better technical procedures such as evaluation checklists. The district needs to match the evaluation process to its purpose; the evaluation system must have utility (defined as efficient use of resources to achieve reliability, validity, and cost effectiveness). Teacher involvement and responsibility are essential to a quality evaluation program.

Evaluated against these criteria, many of the current Illinois proposals compare poorly. Merely calling for a written plan does not insure the participation of teachers and/or unions. Classroom observation of all teachers either once, twice, or four times a year is unnecessarily costly for the thousands of excellent teachers and would probably not prevent incompetent new teachers from entry. Consideration of resources for remediation is often omitted from reform proposals. The emphasis on local development of plans, however, fits well with the research on effective evaluation. Though proposals for training evaluators, essentially principals, are probably not harmful, the efforts would divert attention from far more important evaluation problems.

A central, long-serving tenet of the instructional leadership role is that principals should devote the largest portion of the day to direct supervision of instruction and staff development (Trump, 1977; Hughes and Ubben, 1978). Typically, they suggest upwards of 40 percent of their day to be spent in classroom observation. The conventional wisdom stipulates that building principals annually evaluate in writing all teaching faculty, and that they initiate remediation and dismissal proceedings for those found unsatisfactory.

Morris, Crowson, Porter-Gehrie, and Hurwitz (1984), in a book based on research in Chicago schools, identify realistic personnel evaluation problems. In their study of 16 Chicago principals, elementary principals spent 18 percent of their time with faculty members for all purposes, with a variance ranging from a low of 10 percent to a high of 22 percent. About 9 percent of their time was spent in the classroom -- compared to 48 percent in the "inner office." High school principals spent a little more time with teachers (19 percent, ranging from 13 to 30 percent). But only 7 percent of time was spent in the classroom compared to 45 percent in the inner office. Researchers in other settings (Peterson, 1977-78; Martin and Willower, 1981) also discovered that classroom observation is not a central component of the workday.

Principals pointed out to the researchers that they do not spend much time evaluating teaching because classroom monitoring has only a marginal impact on the overall quality of instruction. Even for grossly incompetent teachers, the principal must spend months in carefully staged observations, teacher conferences, and consultations. It is far easier to transfer teachers and hope for the best.

Crowson and Shapiro (1985), utilizing the Chicago principals' data base, offer several other explanations for little classroom observation including the impossibility of finding blocks of time large enough for observation, the utility of informal nonclassroom clues to teacher performance, and the inability to change poor teaching once identified. Furthermore, principals depend on the cooperation of teachers. Close classroom observation endangers the cooperation. Principals must support and promote the professional independence of the teachers if they wish to receive recognition of their authority (Beck, 1961; Lortie, 1969). Teachers may also actively sabotage overly close supervision by overburdening the principal with trivial questions, slow report preparation, refusal to do the many non-contractual duties, and by arousing parent dissatisfaction. Perhaps this is why Albert Shanker, of the AFT, argues that teachers would rather be evaluated by principals than by other teachers (New York Times, Aug. 21, 1984).

Crowson and Shapiro also argue that close supervision of teachers is not rewarded by their superiors. Procedures for dismissal of teachers are cumbersome, but explicit, and the "organization" disapproves of heavy-handed teacher evaluation. In other instances, one important reason for evaluating teachers is to keep the lid on the school -- to avoid damaging publicity and parental displeasure.

Toledo Plan

Often cited as a model evaluation program, the evaluation of teachers in Toledo serves as a basis for making personnel decisions regarding contract status for interns (new teachers), and continued tenure for teachers targeted as in need of intervention. While the intensive supervision provided to interns and tenured teachers targeted for intervention fosters individual improvement, it also provides information for accountability decisions.

After four years in operation, 7 of 130 new teachers had been fired (Chicago Tribune, Feb. 10, 1985), but no published data indicates the number of new teachers fired in previous years of the plan. Of 24 veteran teachers targeted for intervention (about 1 percent of Toledo's teaching force), 2 were fired, 3 quit, 2 took disability retirement, and 1 was reassigned as a groundskeeper. Only 3 were "rehabilitated" and the remainder are still under counseling. Only one veteran teacher had been fired in the five years prior to the initiation of the plan compared to three in four years under the plan. Principals and administrators know that it is far easier to informally get teachers to quit, but such data do not exist for a comparison of voluntary resignation in years previous to the current Toledo plan.

The organizational commitment to the program is evidenced by the Intern Review Board, composed of 5 union appointees and four administrators, chaired alternately by the union president and the assistant superintendent of personnel. The review committee provides formative evaluation of the overall program, as well as the final decisions regarding dismissal. Released time to teachers chosen as evaluators also shows organizational and financial commitment.

The evaluating teachers are released on a full or part-time basis for up to three years. They assist first year teachers and work intensively with teachers assigned for the intervention program. The latter teachers are identified at the local level by administrators in consultation with the teacher's peers. Principals still evaluate interns on nonteaching behavior and take over evaluations of interns after their first year.

The strong points of this approach to evaluation include the absence of competing job or time constraints for evaluators, the collaboration of teachers and administrators, and the concentration of resources and evaluators in the narrow areas where teachers are likely to benefit most from assistance. The process also serves a "gate-keeper" function, by selecting only those interns who will be or are competent teachers, and rejecting incompetent interns showing no improvement after intensive assistance. The expense of this gate-keeping function varies with the proportion of new teachers. During the first few years of the program, about 34 new teachers a year (1.4 percent of teachers) were in the program. During 1984-85 alone, 74 first year teachers (3 percent of teachers) were undergoing evaluation.

Criticisms leveled at the Toledo plan include the possible prejudice against young teachers. Unions seem quite willing to engage in the evaluation of new teachers, but reluctant to evaluate veterans. Internal union conflicts often occur between age groups. New teachers, a large proportion of whom are minorities in big cities, oftentimes fail to join the union. Even in Toledo, the school board approved the plan as part of the contract negotiations only under the condition that veteran teachers become part of the plan -- teachers the union did not initially want in the program. Another problem centers on the inability of generalist evaluators to evaluate specialized teachers. Bilingual education provides the best example of a specialized approach to education compounded by instruction in two languages.

Existing Cost Estimates

Despite the many varied proposals for personnel evaluation reform, many of which specify substantial increases in time spent on classroom observation, peer review, and remediation, none of the Illinois proposals recognize the cost of these changes. The cost estimates of the Illinois Commission only address the change from the hearing officer system to a three person teacher dismissal hearing board (Reference Note 1). Essentially, personnel costs triple and state costs would rise from an estimated $120,000 to $210,000.

The Toledo plan receives $80,000 annually with funds used primarily to pay substitutes to staff vacated classrooms and give each consulting teacher $1,200, soon to rise to $2,500 (Chicago Tribune, Feb. 10, 1985). A consulting teacher typically evaluates 10 teachers a year -- made up of 25-35 hours of classroom observation and 25-35 hours in conference for each teacher.

Reform Cost Estimates

Estimates for four configurations of personnel evaluations reforms are presented:

	Illinois	Chicago
Low Cost (ISBE)	$ 3,313,000	$ 662,000
Medium Cost (Toledo Plan)	6,266,150	1,320,000
Medium Cost (Citizens Schools Committee)	15,965,250	3,686,800

No Cost. Developing a written evaluation and requiring one or two annual evaluations of all teachers would essentially validate existing procedures, thus presenting no new costs.

Low Cost (ISBE). To improve staff development, the ISBE proposed that the state provide $1,000 for every new teacher and $500 for every experienced teacher. These resources could be used for the type of individual tutoring that new teachers get in Toledo. According to the State, during 1983-84, Illinois had 1,735 new teachers and 3,156 re-entering teachers, which when applied to the proposed per teacher amount, totals $3.3 million. Chicago's share is based on a new teacher figure of 350, and a re-entering teacher figure of 631. Because so many teachers become Chicago teachers through the full-time basic substitute route, decisions about who qualifies as a new teacher are somewhat arbitrary.

Medium Cost (Toledo Plan). Estimates assume that one master teacher supervises and evaluates 10 new teachers and/or veteran teachers targeted for remediation. The cost of freeing up the time of a master teacher is the cost of a full-time substitute plus a $2,000 bonus. Including benefits and retirement, a beginning teacher costs $20,786 statewide, and $22,000 in Chicago for 1985-86. Statewide, 275 master teachers would be needed to serve 1,735 new teachers and 1,000 veteran teachers (about one percent of the veteran teaching force). In Chicago, 55 master teachers would serve 350 new teachers and 200 veteran teachers.

High Cost (Citizens Schools Committee). This estimate for the Citizens Schools Committee proposal, presented primarily for illustrative purposes, is based on: 1) 4 one-hour evaluations for each teacher by peers or a department chair; 2) 2 one-hour evaluations by an assistant principal; and 3) a one-hour evaluation by the principal. The cost for freeing the principal's time is assumed to be the same as the cost for an assistant principal. Statewide, 105,000 classroom teachers need evaluation, and in Chicago, 20,000 classroom teachers. Teachers and assistant principals were assumed to work 44 hours per week for 180 days per year. Assistant principal salaries were set at 10 percent greater than teacher salaries. The calculated hourly price for teachers was $20.83 ($25.25 in Chicago), for assistant principals $22.91 ($27.78 in Chicago) and for principals $24.35 ($28.82 in Chicago). The resulting figure of $16 million statewide and $3.7 million in Chicago represents the value of other school duties foregone in order to evaluate personnel. Extra teachers and assistant principals need to be hired to keep the level of service constant.

12. Scholarships, Internships, and Recruiting

The current Illinois Teacher Scholarship program seeks to help retrain teachers attending public universities to teach high school science and mathematics. During 1984-85, the first year of the program, about 70 teachers will have participated in the $75,000 program. The Illinois State Board of Education wants to amend the program to include: 1) other areas of teaching shortage, 2) those preparing to teach, 3) private colleges and universities, and 4) deletion of the separate special education scholarship provisions. Specifically, the proposed budget of the former state superintendent called for 70 scholarships aimed at retraining teachers, and 30 scholarships targeted for prospective teachers in 1986. Scholarships for prospective teachers would rise to 60 in 1987 and 90 scholarships in 1988. These numbers might include some of the 250 special education tuition scholarships awarded annually. Existing statutes (The School Code of Illinois, 30-15.7e) also provide for scholarships for those preparing for bilingual certification, but the provision has never been funded.

The Illinois Commission proposes a similar teacher scholarship program except for a provision requiring students to either teach three years in Illinois public schools or repay the scholarship. No specific ratio of new to experienced personnel is given. The CTU endorses the Illinois Commission's proposal with respect to new teachers, and asks for state-subsidized, local provisions of tuition assistance for teachers needing retraining and recertification. A third scholarship program would pay tuition and fees for students entering teacher training that meet "high state achievement standards," but no indication of the selectivity (and thus the cost) of the program exists. Yet a fourth program of the CTU would create paid internships (at three-fourths of a beginning teacher's salary) for students "with high academic achievement" who completed their academic requirements. The CTU proposal does not describe the length of internship (e.g., is it a fifth year of college or a substitute for 6 weeks of student teaching), or if it is intended to be a selective program or one designated for all students who show high enough academic achievement to get as far as student teaching. Neither the Illinois Project for School Reform nor the Governor addressed the scholarship issues.

The ISBE first proposed statewide recruitment efforts to get more minorities into education, and to recruit both minorities and women to administrative positions (ISBE Annual Report, 1984). The Illinois Commission advanced a step farther and proposed scholarships for the graduate training of minorities and women in administration. Furthermore, the Commission recommends state funding of 25 fully-paid internships for women and minorities. "The Group" endorses the scholarship/fellowship proposal of the Illinois Commission and supports the general idea of providing internship experiences.

The ISBE also proposed to garner public support with an information campaign to emphasize the indispensable role of teachers and other educators in society. Attracting minorities would comprise an important part of the efforts. The Illinois Commission also wants to launch a publicity campaign aimed at talented and minority students, but the campaign would also attempt to get more men (women) into the female (male) curricula. "The Group" endorses the need for talent identification and recruitment activities.

Background

Scholarship programs for prospective teachers are among the most widely proposed and implemented reforms. The National Commission on Excellence in Education proposed scholarship programs to attract talented students, particularly in areas of critical shortage. The need to attract talented minorities was not specifically mentioned, and the retraining needs of current teachers was obliquely considered as part of a recommendation to solve the immediate need for math and science teachers by drawing on nonschool personnel.

The concern with the math and science teacher shortage arose in advance of the commission/task force reports of 1983. Increased graduation requirements in math and science among a majority of states was expected to raise the shortage to crisis proportions. By May 1983, a nationwide survey revealed that 32 states had already undertaken activity in this area, and 17 had enacted or were considering scholarship/loan provisions (Educ. Week, May 18, 1983). Other alternatives included training master teachers and waiving certification requirements on a temporary basis. Forgivable loans in shortage areas comprise the most widely adopted policy, followed by forgivable loans directed only at math and science teachers. Pennsylvania and New Jersey have a program specifically directed toward recertification, though retraining might be an aspect of many forgivable loan programs.

As the ISBE notes, however, Illinois has not experienced severe teacher shortages. In 1983-84, the year prior to the current math/science scholarship program, only 146 of 5,037 available jobs remained unfilled (Reference Note 3). The state considers math and science areas of relative shortage, with the need for teachers much greater in bilingual education and special education. Agriculture and parts of vocational education, where provisional certification already exists, might also be considered areas of critical shortage.

Retraining requirements in math and science prove to be relatively simple -- often as few as 5 or 6 semester courses for certified high school teachers. Many of the retraining courses are subsidized by certificate renewal fees collected by the Educational Service Regions (ESRs) and designated for professional development (see the staff development section). For example, the Chicago Teachers Union, in conjunction with a local university, operates math and science endorsement course series. A course takes five Saturdays and costs the students $45 (Chicago Union Teacher, Feb., 1985). The Federal government has helped teachers to retain as math teachers by providing $60,000 to National College to help retrain 40 teachers (Chicago Sun-Times, June 3, 1984). National College also had a $200,000 grant from the Amoco Foundation to retrain 80 junior high level teachers. The University of Illinois at Chicago got $50,000 each from the Joyce Foundation and the Carnegie Foundation to retrain 25 teachers. Greater shortages exist in bilingual and special education because retraining is more involved. In bilingual education, where more than 80 percent of the teachers do not have an elementary or secondary certificate, the state will soon require one of these two certificates.

The $45 CTU course represents one of the many creative adaptations of Institutions of Higher Education (IHEs) to the retraining needs of teachers. The Illinois Education Association also operates these kinds of programs. Most Educational Service Regions use professional development funds garnered from annual teacher certification renewals to subsidize extension course work for programs negotiated with individual IHEs. Traditionally, IHEs charge less for extension courses, and in the competitive environment of the last decade, IHEs have become even more cooperative in negotiating low prices. Private institutions, given their market orientation and greater fiscal flexibility, are able to offer prices almost as competitive as public institutions.

Scholarships for prospective teachers cost much more than retraining assistance, not only because of the low cost alternatives described above, but also because it takes two full years to complete a teacher training program. Thus, thirty annual scholarships for prospective teachers produce only 15 teachers.

While proposals for dealing with subject matter area shortages are backed up by forgivable loans, the proposals to attract minority youth to teaching involve only a vague notion of recruitment activities and talent identification. These efforts might range from publishing brochures, to working with the State Teacher Certification Board, to reviewing current standards for approving institutions with respect to minority recruitment (A Study of the Quality of the Preparation and Performance of Illinois Educational Personnel, 1983).

Though the issue of minority teacher recruitment could become controversial if teacher testing excluded a large portion of prospective minority teachers -- as experienced in several states -- the genesis of the interest in minorities comes from their current underrepresentation in the Illinois teaching force. The Illinois Commission cited data showing that while 20 percent of Illinois' population was classified as minority in the 1980 census, only 15 percent of the teaching force, and 15 percent of 1981 Illinois high school seniors intending to teach, identified themselves as minorities. The 15 percent figure for teaching is about the same as in 1977-78. From 1973 to 1983, however, Black enrollment measured from 18.6 percent of Illinois' enrollment to 21.5 percent, while Hispanic enrollment grew from 4.0 percent to 7.0 percent. Chicago employed about 75 percent of Illinois' Black teachers and 73 percent of the state's Hispanic teachers. Only 4.5 percent of teachers outside Chicago are minorities. Nationally, however, the percentage of minority teachers fell from 11.7 percent in 1971 to 8.4 percent in 1981 (Status of the American Public School Teacher, 1981). In 1981, only 4.2 percent of teachers in the middle section of the country were minorities.

The interest in promoting greater minority participation in administration also comes from statistics highlighted in various ISBE studies of the early 1980s. As cited in the Illinois Commission report, 17 percent of administrators statewide are women, but only 12 percent of principals outside of Chicago are women. However, fully 40 percent of Chicago administrators (including assistant principals, coordinators, and directors) are women.

Nationally (and in the middle section of the country), about 12 percent of teachers were employed in schools with female principals (Status of the American Public School Teacher, 1980-81), but more teachers in large school systems (19.8 percent) had female principals than did teachers in medium (11.0 percent) or small (7.4 percent) systems. Between 1971 and 1981, the percentage of female principals increased only from 11 to 12 percent. In Illinois, by comparison, women comprise about 16.5 percent of principals. Within Chicago, 35 percent of all principals are women. Even outside of Chicago, 13.3 percent of principals are women -- a figure exceeding the national average by a small amount.

About 91 percent of teachers were supervised by White principals. In the Midwest, only 5.4 percent of teachers were supervised by nonwhite principals. In 1979-80 in Illinois, 95 percent of elementary principals and 97.2 percent of high school principals were White (Reference Note 5).

While providing scholarships for teacher training and retraining in shortage areas is a policy initiative with fairly predictable results, it is not clear that financial problems associated with tuition expense deter women or minorities from studying for administrative careers. The major cost of full-time study is forgone earnings (lost income during full-time study), which can be substantial for prospective superintendents. A scholarship program should also support part-time attendance, or perhaps funds designated for internships should instead provide stipends for full-time study. The low numbers of women in administration certainly come partly from differing career objectives of women educators, and partly from persistent racial and sexual discrimination. Little evidence exists to show that lack of training and experience deters women from pursuing the superintendency.

Furthermore, the function and outcomes of 25 fully-paid internships for women and minorities proposed by the Illinois Commission is not clear. On the one hand, the internships may identify a special cadre of future superintendents. On the other hand, there is no rationale for providing 25 internships -- why not 10 or 50? Only 81 new superintendents were hired in Illinois in 1983 and fierce competition among White, male contenders for the jobs already exists -- especially with an aging teaching force competing for the top rungs on the career ladder. Additionally, more than 500 female principals (372 outside of Chicago) are accumulating experience at least as good as an internship would provide, and the new entrants to the superintendents competition may exacerbate the position of current female administrators. Research shows that the major route to the superintendency is through a high school principalship (Herlihy and Herlihy, 1980), the principalship with the lowest female and minority representation. Perhaps an internship program aimed at the high school principalship would be the most effective way to secure greater female and minority representation at the supertendent level.

Existing Cost Estimates

The private cost of graduate education -- and presumable retraining costs for experienced teachers -- falls far below preservice training costs. In 1981, 56 percent of teachers had earned college credit during the previous three years at an average cost (tuition, fees, food, lodging, travel, and books) of $624, or $69 per semester hour credit (Status of the American Public School Teacher, 1981). In large school systems, the per-credit hour figure fell to $40. The private costs are so low because much of the training is subsidized by federal, state, and local funding. Almost half of all Illinois districts provide for tuition reimbursement.

The first year of the teacher scholarship program in Illinois served about 70 teachers with the $75,000 appropriation. The ISBE budget proposed by former State Superintendent Donald Gill included a scholarship program to serve 100 students at a cost of $356,000. The price tag for 160 scholarships would rise to $574,000 by 1988. The calculations assumed full-time study at a state institution and fees averaging $3,588. The assumption of full-time study for retraining teachers is certainly not accurate and could fund part-time study of about 210 teachers. The $3,588 average tuition and fee costs should be adjusted to account for: 1) higher enrollment in teacher education and graduate teacher education at public institutions, compared to the general college student population; 2) numerous fee and tuition reductions negotiated between the Institutions of Higher Education (IHEs) and local education agencies such as school districts, and local education agencies such as LEAs, ESRs, cooperatives, and teacher unions; and local tuition reimbursement programs.

The Illinois Commission cost estimates addressed three proposals:

- -- Talent identification and recruitment efforts to attract the talented and minorities to teaching were estimated at $77,000 for two brochures, and some career conferences paid for by the state. Newly required recruitment activities for the IHEs were not costed out.
- -- Teacher scholarship estimates were identical to the ISBE estimates described above except the plan extended to 4 years and 175 scholarships at a cost of $677,900.
- -- The cost of scholarships for minorities and women, arbitrarily set at $5,000 per scholarship for 25 scholarships totaled $125,000. The 25 internships in the Illinois Commission's proposal were assumed to cost $30,000 per internship, about the average for a teacher with a masters degree and 8 to 10 years of experience. Second year cost estimates included 50 scholarships and internships.

Reform Cost Estimates

Compared to other reforms, the cost of scholarship programs falls in the shadows. Even extravagant programs cost little. Our estimated costs of the Illinois Commission proposals fall below the Commission's cost estimates ($2.3 million), primarily because of differences in assumptions about the number and cost of the administrative internships.

	Illinois	Chicago
Low Cost (ISBE Scholarship Program)	$ 359,000	*
Medium Cost (Illinois Commission)	1,136,650	*
High Cost (CTU)	3,179,790	$209,316

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*All costs borne by state; distribution of benefits to Chicago is unknown.

Low Cost (ISBE). This plan represents full implementation of the teacher scholarship program proposed by the ISBE, which is composed of annual scholarships for 70 retraining teachers and 90 prospective teachers. Scholarships for retraining are set at $1,200 -- a little larger than the average amount in the existing 1984-85 program. The average assumed scholarship for prospective teachers of $3,000 falls below the average tuition and fees for full-time study across public and private institutions ($3,588 for 1984-85), because prospective teachers tend to enroll in public institutions more than in private schools. Tuition and fees for 1984-85 at public institutions for juniors and seniors fall below $1,800 per year for full-time study.

Medium Cost (Illinois Commission). Scholarship provisions of $390,000 are based on the suggested fourth year program, composed of 100 prospective teachers and 75 retraining teachers (Reference Note 1). Talent identification and recruitment costs use the $77,000 figure from the Illinois Commission estimates since no clear way exists to estimate adequacy. Estimates of the cost of the scholarship program for administrators are based on 25 scholarships at $6,000 each. Though no specific number of scholarships appears in the Commission's final report, the figure of 25 appears in the cost estimates (Reference Note 1) and a $5,000 per year annual cost is used in the Commission's estimates. The $5,000 figure is probably excessive, and $3,000 per year more accurately reflects tuition and fee costs. Tuition and fees are about 15 percent higher for graduate study, and full-time graduate study at public institutions in the State still runs under $2,000 in tuition and fees. Two year scholarships meet the spirit of the Illinois Commission's report, since it takes at least the equivalent of two full-time years of study to qualify for the superintendency. These estimates would also roughly apply to half-time study over four years, a more realistic approach.

The 25 internships called for by the Illinois Commission were assumed to cost the salary of a full-time substitute -- $20,786 statewide for 1985-86. This is the same procedure used to estimate the cost of master teachers in the personnel section. Districts would continue to pay the regular salary to the intern. If the state paid the regular salary for the intern, as suggested by the Illinois Commission cost estimates, local districts would realize a cost savings of the difference between a full-time substitute and the intern's regular salary.

High Cost (CTU). To the medium cost calculations, these estimates add: 1) the cost of scholarships for the most talented prospective teachers, and 2) the cost of internships for prospective teachers showing high academic achievement. The CTU proposal gives no indication about how selective each program would be. A figure of 10 percent of newly hired teachers was arbitrarily chosen for both programs -- about 175 statewide and 35 in Chicago. Scholarships were set at $6,000 (or $3,000 per year for the two years of teacher training). Internships were presumed to be more demanding substitutes for student teaching, to last one semester and to cost 75 percent of the beginning teacher with no benefits ($15,225 statewide, and $15,986 in Chicago). The Chicago cost calculation represents 35 one-semester internships, implicitly assuming that Chicago would get "high achieving" interns in proportion to the rest of the state even though the district draws from less selective teacher training institutions that most other districts in the state.

13. Staff Development

No common theme ties together the various professional development practices other than every major reform proposal addresses the issue. The Illinois State Board of Education offers the most detailed list of reforms. Districts would be required to develope a state-approved, 3-year staff development plan. Such plans would pay particular attention to new and re-entering professionals. Though falling short of recertification, the educational staff would have to successfully complete district inservice plans to renew their certificates. To help provide resources for staff development, five more half-days for staff development could be counted as official days, bringing the total to 10 half days (the school year would be increased by an equivalent amount. Furthermore, an increase in certificate fees would help provide additional monetary recourses. Yet a final suggestion would require public universities to assist school districts with staff development plans.

The Illinois Commission supports the proposed requirements for a state-subsidized staff development plan, but adds a requirement that specific provisions be made for teachers transferring to new grade levels or subject areas. "Individual continuing education" rather than "completion of district inservice programs" would be needed to maintain a certificate.

Though promoting business-sponsored summer institutes and internships and an educational leadership academy, the Illiois Project for School Reform packages most professional development ideas into Professional Development Planning Councils (PDPCs) at the Educational Service Region (ESR) level. PDPC's could foster inter-school visitations, personnel exchanges, and a general sharing of educational practices. As noted below, ESR superintendents already play an important role in allocating a portion of certificate renewal fees toward regionally-based staff development programs -- primarily subsidized extension courses and workshops offered by colleges and universities.

The governor proposes an unspecified number of Regional Teaching Centers contiguous with ESR regions. The proposed centers would pull together 17 teacher centers, 9 Area Service Centers for Gifted Education (current funding is $840,000 for teacher training), and 20 computer consortia (current funding is $1.5 million) and expand their focus to provide:

- continuing education services for teachers in all areas
- math-science resources
- reading resources
- computer education resources
- budgeted education resources

The Governor set aside $10 million for the centers. In addition, he proposed $2 million for summer fellowships in industry for voc-ed teachers and 3.5 million for a "voucher program" to allow local districts to have consultants for inservice training in the area of reading. Annual continuing education would also provide an important component of the locally developed performance pay programs encouraged by the Governor.

The Chicago Teachers Union deals little with professional development, recommending only that tuition-assistance and grant programs be available to retraining teachers and paraprofessionals. Chicago's proposed five year plan (Designs for Excellence, 1984) couched professional development ideas into the proposal to add 45 minutes each day for staff development (see the School Day/Week/Year Length section of this report). A variety of proposals addressed management training at the central office level including formal management training programs, annual retreats, and orientations and retreats for school board members.

Chicago United (Agenda for Public Action in Chicago, 1983) proposed systemization of professional development, while outlining current thinking about effective professional development, presented few concrete proposals. The School Accountability Study of the Citizens School Committee (1982) outlined several suggestions for Chicago's staff development, including: 1) an important role for department or "grade level" chairs, 2) integration of supervision and evaluation procedures into staff development, 3) staff development teams within a school to assist teachers needing help, and 4) teacher transfers for professional growth and development. An important component of the School Improvement Councils proposed by Designs for Change, a nonprofit research corporation and student advocacy organization, is the consolidation of all existing school-level staff development programs supported by school districts, state and federal funds into a single coherent staff development program. This staff development plan would be:

-- based on the local school improvement plan
-- designed and implemented by local personnel
-- include the school administration on a regular basis
-- be assessed and modified on a continuing basis by local staff and school improvement council members.

Background

We have a fairly good description of professional growth activities on a national basis (Status of the American Public

School Teacher, 1981). Teachers were most likely to participate in system-sponsored workshops during the school year (67.4%), work on curriculum committees (34.2%), progression growth activities sponsored by professional associations (27%), or college courses in education (21.3%).

The most startling change between 1971 and 1981 occurred in the percent of teachers taking college courses, perhaps explaining the Illinois Commission's interest in promoting individual staff development. College course work in education declined from 40 percent in 1971 to 21 percent in 1981, and in other fields fell from 26 to 13 percent. Summer work fell from 30 to 13 percent for education courses, and from 21 to 6 percent for other courses. University extension coursework declined from 33 to 18 percent. Between 1971 and 1981, 12 of 14 profession growth activities in the survey showed a decline in partipation. Only workshops sponsored by the school district and association sponsored activities (which includes union sponsored activities) showed an increase.

One reason for the decline in the college attendance among teachers is that 50 percent of the teaching force already has a masters degree. Another reason comes from the many new and varied ways to earn college credit (e.g., week-end workshops). In 1981, for example, 56 percent of teachers reported earning college credit in the previous three years, down from 61 percent 10 years earlier. The mean semester hours, however, declined from 14 to 9 over the 10 year period. For those under age 30, on the other hand, the percentage earning college credit during the previous three years actually increased.

The central theme of many reform proposals throughout the nation centering on staff development focus on lengthening the school day or year to provide for staff development (see the school day/week/year section of this study). Oklahoma, Florida, and Georgia implemented programs to provide special services to new teachers, but these programs also tend to contribute to decisions regarding tenure and continuing certification. While state academies/centers/institutes for administrators abound, few academies exist for teachers. New Jersey's Academy for the Advancement of Teaching and Management opened with about 300 teachers. Teachers get short sabbaticals (paid for by school districts) for a few days or for several weeks. The $250,000 budget covers a director and a staff of instructors. Teachers are selected on a competitive basis and pay a small fee. Participants do not receive graduate level credit, an idea opposed by unions, but favored by institutions of higher education. Pennsylvania has an Institute for the Improvement of Science and Mathematics Education funded at the

$400,000 level. Pittsburg has provided substitutes to allow some teachers to attend a nine-week, off-campus inservice course on a full-time basis.

Interest in the reform of staff development in Illinois comes primarily from the difficulty in relying on newly-prepared personnel to infuse new approaches and ideas into the schools. During the past two or three years, only about 1.7 percent of Illinois teachers have been first-year teachers. In 1981, reentering teachers filled 60 percent of vacancies. As the teaching force aged, the turnover rate fell -- from 15 percent in 1964-65 to 8 percent in 1981-82 -- since those exiting teaching tend to do so more rapidly during the first few years of teaching.

Currently, the State Board of Education requires every school system to conduct supervisory and inservice training. The School Code of Illinois gives major responsibility to ESR superintendents to organize district, regional or county professional education experiences, and to use fees for registration and certificate renewal to defray administrative costs. Currently, these efforts take the form of subsidized education courses and workshops offered by colleges and schools of education. Thus, the Professional Development Planning Councils proposed by the Illinois Project for School Reform strengthen and expand the current role of the ESRs.

School districts are allowed four full days and five half-days (which count as student attendance days) for professional development activities. The ISBE claims that these days are used primarily for 1) parent-teacher conferences, grade reporting, and curriculum development workshops, and 2) motivational speeches, meetings, seminars or workshops (A Study of the Quality of the Preparation and Performance of Illinois Educational Personnel, 1983). Public testimony regarding the proposal to add five half-days to the school calander showed little support (Reference Note 4). The major source of funds for inservice educations comes from certificate renewal fees collected by regional superintendents (at least $400,000 annually), and federal categorical programs (about $25 million in 1981). ISBE staff recommendations to increase certificate fees to $20 (A Study of the Quality of the Preparation and Performance of Illinois Educational Personnel, 1983) were opposed by school officials and teacher unions as excessive and an unfair tax on teachers to pay for school improvement (Reference Note 4). Regional superintendents noted that high certificate fees would adversely affect retired and other inactive teachers. Since Catholic schools commonly employ state certified teachers, the Illinois Catholic Conference opposed the idea.

Currently, certificate renewal requires, "evidence of professional growth" prior to renewal. The provision is not enforced, however, partly because the number of possible activities prevents meaningful enforcement. The law, enacted in 1951, sought to encourage all teachers to get bachelors degrees. Thus continued work towards the degree constituted professional development (A Study of the Quality of the Preparation and Performance of Illinois Educational Personnel, 1983). The proposals of the ISBE (successful completion of district inservice programs) and the Illinois Commission (requires individual continuing professional education for certificate renewal) do not appear to be any less vague. Public testimony on the issues shows that the Illinois Association of School Boards wants local definition of successful completion, that teacher unions oppose the idea, and that the Illinois Principals Association saw the plan as just more paperwork (Reference Note 4). According to the Illinois Teacher Salary Schedule and Contract Provision Study - 1981-82, 57 percent of all collective bargaining agreements contain provisions related to staff development, and 23 percent require evidence of professional growth.

How Chicago would fit into either certificate renewal schemes or certificate fee increases is not clear given the low participation of Chicago teachers in the state certification system.

Effectiveness

As noted by the ISBE, programs designed to enhance the capacity and performance of personnel -- inservice, staff development, professional development, etc. -- encompass a number of goals (A Study of the Quality of the Preparation and Performance of Illinois Educational Personnel, 1983). They suggest staff development for four purposes:

- Orienting and assisting personnel who are inexperienced or new to the district
- Providing for the continued improvement of personnel performing satisfactorily
- Assisting those showing inadequate performance
- Preparing some for new or expanded assignments

The ISBE notes that remedial staff development ought to be directly related to personnel evaluation policies. Indeed, in this report, some staff development activities comprise an important part of the personnel evaluation, and the training and certification of new teachers.

Overall, staff development research suffers from a piecemeal and patchwork approach (Edelfelt, 1975), with little sense of the literature and other research on the subject (Nicholson, 1976) and practically no evaluation data on inservice programs (McDonald, 1977). Chicago United's Agenda for Public Education in Chicago (1983) described the newest thinking about what constitutes effective staff development. A combination of theory, modeling, practice, feedback, and coaching provides the most effective training activities (Joyce and Showers, 1980). Goal specificity results in improved success (Clark et al., 1980). Teachers prefer inservice programs directly related to achievement of their school goals and want ideas to take back to their classrooms.

A detailed study of three urban school districts by Moore and Hyde,(1981) however, found that middle-level administrative staff within districts dominate staff development decisions. These individuals made decisions and took initiative concerning staff development largely on their own. Staff development was not clearly centralized to respond to district priorities. While there was much talk about responding to the needs of individual teachers, staffs, and communities, these groups had only a limited role in shaping activities. The main factor controlling the level of school-initiated activity seemed, simply enough, to be the extent to which the school district encouraged or discouraged the activity.

The ISBE distinguishes between: 1) district defined organizational staff development, and 2) individual staff development. The former, keyed to needs of a district, provides the main interest of the State Board because of the relationship to other parts of their reform agenda, including locally defined outcome statements regarding student achievement. Though admitting that available research does not demonstrate that organizational programs are superior to other delivery structures, they insist that researchers document changed teacher behavior, increased collegiality, and altered communication patterns. Strong State leadership, support and requirements are needed, they believe, to guide organizational staff development. Part of the State Board's interest comes from their role in administering federal funds which contained substantial resources for staff development.

In a detailed study of staff development in three urban districts, Moore and Hyde (1981) found that actual costs of staff development were fifty times greater than the district's own estimates. The "hidden cost" of teacher and administrator time for staff development is typically viewed as part of the district's regular budget rather than staff development. Another factor obscuring the extent and cost of staff development comes from delegating of the responsibility for staff development among a large number of people and departments. Rather than a result of conscious policy, staff development activities accumulate over time in response to federal funding cutbacks, organizational politics, and teacher negotiations. While these findings indicate the potential usefulness of district-wide staff development plans, Moore and Hyde found that offices designated to coordinate staff development tended to play minor roles.

Traditional approaches to staff development include teacher education, school district inservices, supervisory activities, workshops and consultations associated with mandate changes, and teacher centers. Most of the staff development traditions emphasize growth of the individual teacher and downplay the importance of the organization and the social context (like the ISBE staff). Moore and Hyde suggest a broader definition of staff development: any school district activity intended to prepare paid staff members for improved performance in present or possible future roles in the school district. This broad definition included:

-- Receiving on-the-job advice and feedback
-- Structured experiences such as workshops
-- Sharing and analyzing problems and ideas at staff, department, and committee meetings
-- Observing the job activities of others
-- Systematically planning and trying out new approaches
-- Seeking information to improve one's skills, such as released time for teacher centers
-- Interning

Note that Governor Thompson's proposed teacher centers only deal with one or two of these activities. Using this comprehensive perspective on staff development, Moore and Hyde focused on three major categories of cost:

1. Staff Leadership Time. In one district, the inservice cost provided by the Inservice Education Department and the Career Education Department comprised only 13 percent of total inservice costs at this level. The compensatory education (4.6%), curriculum (39%), student services (36%), and personnel (7.5%) departments provided the remainder. In another district, fully 40 percent of staff development costs accrued under federal programs with most of the remainder split between the curriculum department (13%) the office of operations (18%), and a magnet schools division (13%). A third school district, however, funded 54 percent of its staff development activities through a staff development department with 11.4 percent in the curriculum department, 9.5 percent in the career education department, and 12.6 percent in special education.

2. Teacher Time at the School Site. At the school site level, resources devoted to staff development varied tremendously. In one district, elementary teachers spent over 8 percent of their time on staff development, and high school teachers, 5.7 percent -- but substantial variations existed among schools. The cost of teacher staff development time was 3.65 times greater than staff development leaders' costs. In the second district, which relied heavily on federal funds, less than one percent of teacher time was devoted to staff development, even under Moore and Hyde's expansive definition of staff development. The cost of teacher staff development time exceeded the staff development leaders' cost by only a factor of 1.45. In the third district, staff development activities comprised only a little over 2 percent of teachers time at either the high school or elementary level. The value of teacher time spent on professional development at the school site just doubled the cost of staff leaders' time.

3. Monetary Incentive for Staff Development. Most districts encourage individual continuing education and staff development directly through monetary incentives. Teacher stipends, sabbaticals, and salary increases (salary schedule increment for educational attainment or inservice participation) comprised from 9 to 20 percent of the broadly defined staff development costs. In two districts studied by Moore and Hyde, salary increase increments comprised the largest monetary incentive costs, while in the other, stipends were considerably more important. Though increased salary costs are usually associated with college credit, the district relying most on this reward gave salary schedule credit to district inservice participation. The salary increase cost represents only one year figures. Stipends probably provide the least expensive monetary incentive since they don't carry long run obligations on the salary schedule. On the other hand, stipends discourage "volunteerism" and tend to favor particular kinds of teachers. The reward for graduate study in Illinois is about 8-9 percent for beginning teachers, and about 14% for maximum scheduled salaries (A Study of the Quality of the Preparation and Performance of Illinois Educational Personnel," 1983). Forty-seven percent of districts in Illinois with collective bargaining provide partial or total tuition reimbursement.

4. Shifting Sources of Financial Support for Staff Development. Moore and Hyde found that even though a high percentage of support came from local sources, severe financial cutbacks forced large reductions in administrative staff, and staff development programs were cut to the bone. The most well-developed staff development programs got substantial support from state and federal sources. They identified several problems with these trends. First, staff

development experiences are not equally available to all teachers. Second, lack of coordination increased. Third, continuity from year to year was more difficult to secure.

Existing Cost Estimates

ISBE staff recommendations in the Educational Personnel Quality study suggested a $2 per student state appropriation to help fund districts with approved plans, or about $3.6 million statewide. Certificate renewal fees would rise from $4 annually to $20. About 100,000 annual renewals (most Chicago teachers do not qualify or maintain a state certificate) yields another $1.6 million.

Former state superintendent Don Gill's proposed budget, and the Illinois Commission cost estimates (Reference Note 1) used the same staff development cost estimates:

1. $1,735,000 for 1,735 beginning teachers at $1,000 per teacher
2. $1,578,000 for 3,156 reentering teachers at $500 per teacher
3. $16,000,000 for the remaining 100,000 professional staff (teachers, pupil services, and administrators) at $160 per person.

The origin of the $160 figure is not explained in the cost estimates -- nor the $500 or $1,000 figure for new and re-entering teachers. The estimate of 105,000 profession staff falls below actual levels. In 1982-83, Illinois had 105,000 classroom teachers, 11,000 pupil service staff, 4,250 principals and assistants, and 1,875 central office administrators (ISBE Annual Report, 1984).

The Illinois Commission estimates also include $500 per reassigned teachers for 3,140 teachers (the number reassigned according to state records), amounting to $1,570,000. State costs for the continuing education requirements for certificate renewal were considered costless, since the matter was considered a local responsibility. Governor Thompson's $10 million proposed appropriation for Regional Teaching Centers includes at least two currently funded programs totaling $2.3 million in 1984-85.

It is interesting to note that all of these proposals provide only fractional additions to existing staff development resources. In 1985-86 dollars, Moore and Hyde (1981) estimate staff development costs incurred by local districts at $1,500 to $2,500 per teacher on an annual basis.

Reform Cost Estimates

	State	Chicago
Low Cost (district staff development plans)	$ -0-	$ -0-
Low Cost (PDPCs)	142,000	28,400
Middle Cost (Tuition reimbursement in Chicago)	---	2,540,710
High Cost (Governor)	13,150,000	2,630,000*
High Cost (ISBE/Illinois Commission)	23,283,000	4,656,600*

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*Chicago's share of state funding based on the number of professional personnel

Low Cost (district staff development plans). This configuration assumes that districts would construct a staff development plan, through the local committee structure, to organize the substantial resources already devoted to staff development.

Low Cost (Professional Development Planning Councils). These estimates assume that the planning councils, costing the same as the three regional councils in the ESR (i.e. school-business, before and after school, and university-school councils) or $2,500 per council, would work with the existing certificate fee resources.

Medium Cost (Tuition Reimbursement in Chicago). Many districts already have such plans. The CTU proposal to gain such assistance in Chicago was determined by using data from The Status of the American Public School Teacher, 1981 on urban school teachers. According to the survey, over a three year period, 55 percent of teachers averaged 10 semester hours of college credit at a total cost (not just tuition) of $401. The cost figure was increased to $600 to reflect 1985-86 costs. Applied to a base of 24,000 personnel, the annual costs just exceed $2.5 million. These estimates do not consider possible increased college-going due to the subsidy, and the resulting cost in salary increments.

Medium Cost (Governor). This figure adds the $10 million proposed for regional teaching centers, $2 million for summer fellowships for voc-ed teachers, the $3.5 million reading inservice voucher program, and subtracts the $2,350,000 already going to Area Gifted Centers and regional computer consortia.

High Cost (Illinois Commission/ISBE). The figures are the same as the reported figures, except that $160 per teacher allocated for staff development of experienced teachers is applied against a base of 115,000 experienced, certificated personnel, not the 100,000 in the Commission's estimates.

14. Administrator Training, Certification, and Duties

Among the most detailed of all its recommendations, the Illinois Commission wants administrative recertification every five years based upon a broad assessment of the administrator's knowledge, skill and competence. Those not performing satisfactorily would have a two year probation period in which to remediate specific skill deficiencies. Presumably, Chicago administrators would also need to be recertified even though the Illinois Commission did not recommend merging the Chicago Board of Examiners with the state certification system. Initial prerequisites for administrative certification would require demonstration of knowledge required for establishing a high quality school climate and promoting good classroom organization and management. In addition, a law would require that administrators demonstrate an understanding of the knowledge called for in establishing productive parent-school relationships. Another aspect of this proposal would require local school districts to identify, plan, and then implement activities for principals at all levels to spend sufficient time in the classroom to assess the current educational climate in the district and re-establish their teaching skills. Twenty-five internships for women/minorities would be established to provide experience to prepare these people for the superintendency.

The Illinois State Board of Education first focused on the need to recruit minorities and women to school administration (A Study of the Quality of the Preparation and Performance of Illinois Educational Personnel, 1983). Though no unified proposal aimed at principals or administrators has been adopted by the ISBE, various proposals and recommendations spread across a number of documents would: 1) identify the role of the principal as an instructional leader; 2) require staff development for recertification; 3) increase certification fees to pay for more continuing education; and 4) increase funding of the Principals Leadership Academy from $100,000 (current) to $200,000.

The Illinois Project for School Reform, though quite willing to impose strict entry requirements to the teaching profession, fell almost silent on issues relating to school administration. The Project supports an Illinois Leadership Academy that also includes teachers as clientele.

The Governor's proposal also couched all reform efforts aimed at administrators within the context of a principals academy. Specifically, the unifying theme would be instructional leadership rather than "building management, legal, and budgetary issues," -- a theme echoed in the Illinois Commission's report. The academy's program would be based on the effective schools research. Evaluation of both student achievement and teachers would be important components.

In contrast to almost every other proposal entering legislation in the State, the Chicago Teachers Union wants the role of the principal to be redefined as a manager of resources rather than as an instructional leader -- even to the extent that people outside the educational community would be allowed to seek positions as school administrators. The CTU proposes that the principal should possess expertise in managing resources, such as teachers, in all areas of the school should receive recommendations in curriculum, discipline, textbook selection, and parent-school relationships from teachers. With regard to administrative training and certification, the CTU proposes that the state create an authority that will exclusively be responsible for the certification of principals. Present principals serving in the state would be issued appropriate certification. New applicants would be required to pass a written examination designed to demonstrate an acceptable level of administrative knowledge and management skill. There would be no charge for this exam. The school code would require school-level administrators to demonstrate their knowledge and skill in the evaluation of staff, general communication and interpersonal skills, and to prove success in establishing and maintaining appropriate classroom learning environments by completion of required course work and testing prior to certification.

As revealed in Chicago's proposed long-range plan (Design for Excellence, 1984), and like the CTU's proposal, reform issues addressing administration differ in Chicago as compared to the rest of the State. The central thrust of the proposed plan is to give principals more authority, provide extra assistance from an associate principal, establish a system for objectively evaluating principals, and then paying them based on performance rather than according to school size. Unproductive principals would be placed back in the teaching force. In the rest of Illinois principals are paid based on merit and can be dismissed to the teaching force. This would require elimination of the current tenure practices for principals in Chicago. Neither option currently exists in Chicago, where principals are guaranteed an administrative job for life. While many other reform proposals stress increased attention to examinations, certification and recertification, the Design for Excellence proposal seeks a shift from certification and testing (Chicago principals must pass written and oral examinations) to a career ladder approach to the principalship.

The Citizens Schools Committee (1982) also presented a number of proposals to strengthen the authority of principals, including giving principals more influence in selecting a management team and the teachers and more control over discretionary funds. CSC also deemphasizes the importance of testing and certification and instead focuses more on administrative experience as a selection criterion. Community input in principal selection would remain important. Chicago United's (1983) Agenda for Public Education in Chicago also called for greater authority at the school site level for the principal. In contrast to many other reform proposals, especially the Governor's, lack of management training was identified as the essential professional development need of principals and other administrators.

Background

A central thrust of the Illinois Principals Leadership Academy (IPLA) and an important component of the reform proposals of the Governor, the ISBE, the Illinois Project, and the Illinois Commission is the role of the principal as instructional leader. Surprisingly, little was known until recently about the job of being principal despite the standard dictum that good management begins with a precise understanding of the work or task of any job. The literature is full of statements about what ought to be done, or reports of discrepencies between such prescriptions and what is actually done (Mulhauser, 1983). The current "effective schools" movement in the U.S. holds that the principal in an effective school is a "strong leader of instruction."

Edmond's (1981) early research on effective schools concluded that: 1) the effective inner city school had an administrative team which provided a good balance between both management and instructional skills; and 2) the administrative team in the more effective school had a plan developed for reading problems and had implemented the plan. Some schools, he asserted, are instructionally effective for the poor because they have a "tyrannical" principal who compels teachers to bring all children to a minimum level of basic skills, but others were effective who employed more democratic processes. Edmonds found no consistent correlation between administrative style and effectiveness.

Sweeny's (1982) research synthesis on effective school leadership listed six traits: 1) emphasize achievement, 2) set instructional strategies, 3) provide an orderly atmosphere, 4) frequently evaluate student progress, 5) coordinate instructional programs, and 6) support teachers. Persell and Cookson (1982) identified 9 characteristics of the effective principal. Leithwood and Montgomery (1983) expanded the list to 13 characteristics. In a recent volume of the "Hot Topics" series published by Phi Delta Kappan, the editors isolated more than 150 discrete traits of effective principals suggesting that "principals must be both authoritarian and humanistic," and that "the traits needed for the job sound almost like a description of Wonder Woman or Superman."

Some research is going beyond the simplistic recommendation for "super hero" principals as leaders of everything in their schools. Gersten, Carnine, and Green (1982) concluded that the functions necessary to support instructional change are ones that principals are commonly observed to perform, but that these functions may be covered by others in the instructional "team." They argue that the expertise of the whole school staff should be assessed andutilized rather than requiring principals to adapt unfamiliar roles. Nancy Pitner (1982) claims that what is conventionally termed "leadership" may not be necessary when the work situation includes other values, such as a cohesive, competent, professional staff, or constitutes a work situation that neutralizes leadership, such as employee resistance to organizational rewards. Firestone and Herriot (1982) found that the relationship between teachers and principals in elementary schools and secondary schools are quite different and that prescriptions for leadership drawn from the research on elementary schools may not apply to secondary education. Greenfield (1981) also argues for a distinction among contexts (states, districts, building size, levels, etc.). In an examination of what principals write about the principalship, Barth and Deal (1982) claim that uncertainty is the dominant theme with a certain fatalism and a view of leadership as luck. The conflict between a principal's turbulant life and the orderly world prescribed in the texts is hypothesized to contribute to feelings of guilt and anxiety. The research on Chicago principals by Morris, Crowsom, Hurwitz, and Porter-Gehrie (1984) convincingly documents the conflict between the idealized conception of what principals should do, and how they actually must behave to survive from one day to the next.

Though a substantial portion of the nation's current education reform movement focuses on teachers, for the most part, administrators and principals have been left out of the national education reform debate. Nationally, the most significant administration issue centers on the role and qualifications of the principal in evaluating teachers, particularly in the context of merit pay schemes. Far in advance of the current reform movement, the so-called "effective schools research" highlighted the important role of the principal in shaping student outcomes. In Illinois particularly, the effective schools research and the principals academy have been linked. The effective schools research also underlies the many proposals to define the role of the principal as instructional leader.

Typically, state-sponsored principals centers/academies/institutes assist in the professional development, certification, or evaluation of administrators. Most academies offer short-term inservice training for principals. The North Carolina Leadership Institute for Principals has an internship program with master principals. Business/Education Liaison programs, which give principals access to corporate training programs, are most common in large urban areas, such as the Dade County (Miami) Management Academy and the Wayne County (Detroit area) Educational Leadership Impact Program. Support teams -- groups of principals meeting on an informal basis -- are an integral part of the Orange County (California) Center for Educational Administrator Development. The Maryland Professional Development Academy has week-long summer institutes with follow-up sessions during the year. The school executive training programs in North Carolina, South Carolina, and Dade County support extensive resource and information files. Some centers/academies/institutes regularly publish newsletters.

There are a number of groups in Illinois which already function as inservice providers for administrators through state conventions, seminars, workshops and intensive week-end training sessions. These include the Illinois Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, the Illinois Principals Association, local chapters of Phi Delta Kappa, and other regional groups designed around special topics. These groups constantly send flyers to principals throughout the State of Illinois. Many are directly associated with university and college programs. Many regional cooperatives have an informational and training function established with state and federal funds. The Illinois Statewide Facilitator Center provides law-related education in Illinois through funds from the Office of Elementary and Secondary Education, U.S. Department of Education. Whether an administrator takes advantage of any of these program and educational opportunities depends upon the motivation of the administrator and the support of each school district's superintendent and board of education.

For several years, the ISBE has been interested in the professional development needs of principals, and in 1984 obtained support from the legislature to fund the Illinois Principals Leadership Academy. Operating on a $100,000 start-up budget, the IPLA has two Associate Directors directly associated with Loyola University, Chicago and Southern Illinois University at Carbondale. Illinois State is also part of the consortium. The first inservice held on March 28, 1985 at Hillside, Illinois was chaired by Dr. Jerry Dellon from Tennessee. The nature of this inservice is similar to an institute or workshop that is available from a number of independent educational consulting organizations. The ultimate goal of the IPLA is to become self-sustaining. Funding would be sought from foundations, private businesses, and corporations. Only about 10 percent of the programs of the 43 academies now in existence are funded privately. Ninety percent receive state funds ranging from $100,000 in Illinois to $8,000,000 per year in California. In addition, only 10 percent of these programs are tied to administrative certification renewal (IPLA Communique, published on February 22, 1985 at Normal, Illinois, and sent to all of the principals in Illinois).

Effectiveness

Academy Approach. The academy offers an opportunity to provide state-specific, professional development for principals and administrators on a structured, stable and continuous basis. The academy need not rely on institutions of higher education, and the academy offerings can be largely determined by participants themselves.

Many disadvantages exist, however, including the fact that most instruction is still one-way communication similar to the traditional model presented in the university courses. Frequently, external consultants deal with substantive topics offered in the academy curriculum, but little with the specific context of the organization sponsoring the academy. Consequently, the provider of inservice comes in with little or no knowledge of the events and conditions present in an organization that led to the need for inservice in the first place. There is also the danger that the focus of the curriculum will be directed for the immediate needs of the participants with little emphasis on the search for long-term solutions.

A principals academy will not upgrade administrative skill if the administrator and his supervisor(s) are not committed to such a comprehensive plan. Those administrators who are energetic, anxious and curious about growth in the profession already avail themselves of the many inservices, college courses, workshops, institutes, etc. without being required to attend. Those less interested in professional advancement, personal competence, and management success will be less likely to attend any type of inservice, workshop, seminar or academy. Since principals do not have tenure, except in Chicago, school districts may be unwilling to invest patience or money in poor administrators and would rather reassign those marginal individuals to classroom duties instead. In fact, the use of recertification and specific provisions for remediation may end up giving principals a form of job protection by allowing principals to appeal dismissal actions of local boards of education.

Certification and Testing of Administrators. As with proposals for teacher testing, one would expect that Chicago's practice of testing principals could offer a prototype for the state to follow. Instead, most local groups, except the CTU, propose to dispense with the exam and make the rise to the principalship more carefully sequenced with actual administrative experience.

Great difficulty exists in defining the job description of the administrator upon which to base testing competence and skill. At least in Chicago, the exams can be, and are, quite job specific. Such phrases as "kept pace with new knowledge," possesses a "high quality school climate," "good classroom organization and management," and "productive parent-school relationships" are very subjective. It would be difficult to require a demonstration of knowledge required for the establishing of a high quality school climate and the promotion of good classroom organization and management for prospective administrators. How can one measure demonstrated ability when there has been no opportunity to test the ability! As the Citizens Schools Committee (1982) noted, the Chicago Principals Examination identifies good students, not good principals.

Principal as Instructional Leader. Over the past fifteen years, a great deal of research has described effective schools. A recurring theme is that principals of these schools are strong instructional leaders who are perceived as playing a crucial role in influencing the school's high achievement. Yet the research has failed to produce a successful training model to train principals to do these things. Close supervision by superintendents may be a more effective way to change behavior than any training course. This failure raises questions about the effect that the organizational structure of schools has upon the processes of teaching and learning. How principals behave in this environment's complex character is still unclear. It may be premature to develop school improvement policies and administrative training programs that would substantially improve a principal's skill in the instructional area until more is known about this entire area. The work of Steven Bossert (1982), Arthur Blumberg (1980), Van Cleve Morris and Robert Crowson (1981), and David Kroeze (1984) among others points to the needs for further study of the effective principal as instructional leader.

In contrast, the CTU proposal assigns the role of instructional leadership to a working committee of professionals who would carry out the broad priorities assigned to them by either state mandate or local board policy. Much anecdotal evidence indicates that some Chicago schools have operated very well without a principal for short periods of time. Ron Edmond's original effective schools research shows that while effective schools might have a "tyrannical" principal, the effective school usually has, for whatever reason, a "dedicated cadre of teachers." But effective management of the school necessitates control of the building's resources; the teachers and their instructional practices are a resource of the building. Separating the function of the principal into management of resources as if the instructional program were not a resource of the school may well be a shortsighted approach.

Existing Cost Estimates

Several appropriation levels have been recommended for the Illinois Principals Leadership Academy including $200,000 recommended by former State Superintendent Donald Gill, $310,000 asked by the Illinois Project for School Reform, and $610,000 wanted by the Illinois Commission and the Governor. Though $610,000 appears generous compared to the $100,000 pilot program, this amount only provides about $185 per principal per year. If the academy also serves assistant principals and deans, the per person figure drops to $123, and by including superintendents and assistant superintendents, the figure drops to $91 per person. Adding those certified as administrators but still in the classroom (holders of the administrative certificate generally wait five years to become a principal, and some never become principals) drops the per person amount even farther. Approximately 750 Chicago administrators (a figure excluding coordinators and support personnel) are not principals or assistant principals, and their inclusion drops the per person figure yet again. In contrast, staff development costs estimated for the Illinois Commission and included in former State school chief Donald Gill's proposed budget (Reference Note 2) allocated $160 per teacher for staff development.

Illinois Commission estimates consider cost changes at institutions of higher education for the proposed changes in preservice training of administrators, but the Commission concluded that the costs are not known and would involve internal reallocation of resources. Estimated costs for recertification included: 1) $551,600 paid by 1200 examinees at $43 per test, and 2) $220,000-$300,000 to develop a certification or recertification test (one-time only). Review of the administrator's portfolio would be part of the annual

Public School Approval process. District plans to have administrators spend more time in the classroom were considered a non-cost proposal.

Reform Cost Estimates

Because the reforms in this area affect only a small portion of personnel, costs also tend to be small compared to other reform proposals:

	Illinois	Chicago
Low Cost (Principals Academy)	$ 200,000	$ 29,900*
Low Cost (Administrators Academy)	1,192,000**	315,200*
Medium Cost	710,000	100,800
High Cost (Illinois Commission)	3,719,376	476,705

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* Chicago's share of academy funding based on the proportion of principals or administrators in Chicago compared to the state.

**Does not include $220,000 to $300,000 for one-time test development.

Low Cost (Principals Academy). The state figure represents the proposed funding level offered in former State Superintendent Donald Gill's proposed State education budget. Though the extent of Chicago participation is unknown, the Chicago figure reflects the proportion of principals in Chicago (about 497) compared to the state total (about 3,284), or 15 percent.

Low Cost (Administrators Academy). This hypothetical academy would serve all superintendents, associate superintendents, principals, and associate principals or deans, a figure totaling 5,484 outside of Chicago (Statistical Profile of Illinois Administrators, 1983-84) and 1,388 in Chicago (Hess and Hallet, 1982, revised 1984). At $160 per administrator, the figure for state staff development support proposed by the Illinois Commission, the academy would cost $1.2 million.

Medium Cost. This estimate combines a $610,000 principals academy, as proposed by the Illinois Commission and Governor, with $100,000 in annual testing costs for recertification. The figure does not include a one-time cost of $220,000 to $300,000 for test development. Chicago administrators are included in the analysis even though not presently part of the state certification system. Test costs assume a $50 exam fee, and that 9,500 people with administration certificates (2,500 in Chicago) would want to keep their certificate current by taking the test every five years. The number of test takers exceeds the actual number of administrators because many teachers with administrative certificates still await job openings. The cost of portfolio preparation (peer review, collating, student achievement data, etc.), the other aspect of the proposed recertification, is not included.

High Cost (Illinois Commission). For this configuration, the cost of principals' time to spend 40 additional hours per year in the classroom for 3,284 principals statewide and 492 in Chicago, is added to the medium cost calculations (involving recertification) explained above. The calculations assume that a person paid at the assistant principal level could perform the principal's duties forgone to spend time in the classroom. Thus the cost of freeing the principal's time is the assistant principal's time cost of $27.78 per hour in Chicago and $22.91 per hour statewide. The hourly costs are explained in the personnel evaluation section of this report.

E. PERSONNEL COMPENSATION

15. Salaries and Performance Pay

Coming off the boom years of the 1960s, teacher salaries fell throughout the 1970s, when compared to other workers in the economy or when adjusted by the Consumer Price Index. Perceptions of declining teacher quality and the economic motivation of educational professionals, placed teacher compensation at the forefront of education reform in the mid-1980s. The reforms address increasing compensation, making compensation performance-based, and restructuring the career path(s) of the education professionals. Every major reform proposal in Illinois addresses these issues.

A $20,000 minimum teacher salary has become the standard reform proposal both nationally and in Illinois. The Illinois Commission wants a $20,000 minimum by 1987-88 ($18,140 minimum for 1985-86 increased at 5 percent per year totals $20,000 in 1987-88). The Commission's cost calculations (Reference Note 1) clearly indicate that raising the minimum to $20,000 also means raising the average teacher salary by the same percentage increase. Additionally, the Illinois Commission encourages districts to provide a wider array of roles and responsibilities within teaching.

Both the former and current State Board Superindentends proposed ISBE budgets modeled exactly on the Illinois Commission proposals to raise minimum salaries, including identical cost estimates ($80 million in 1985-86, $171 million in 1986-87, and $275 million in 1987-88). The ISBE carefully stays away from performance-pay and career ladder proposals, though former Superintendent Donald Gill's proposed 1984-85 budget proposal contained a $5 million request for the now eliminated master teacher proposal.

The cost estimates of the $20,000 minimum salary proposal of the Illinois Commission and the ISBE clearly indicate that the basic idea is to first calculate the percentage increase needed to bring the average beginning salary to $20,000 -- about 10 percent according to their estimates. Then, the needed percentage increase operates as an index for across-the-board salary increases for all teachers to maintain percentage salary differentials within and among districts. No financial mechanism for distributing the salary supplements appear in the recommendations or cost estimates. If the calculated sum of $274 million for 1987-88 were awarded through categorical grants, those districts with the highest salaries and/or the lowest class sizes would get the highest per pupil allocations from the categorical grant. Putting the $274 million through the general aid formula would alter salary differencials among districts.

The CTU also endorsed the $20,000 minimum in their January reform proposals, but then proposed a plan that would easily have doubled teacher salaries. This proposal, when combined with their proposed class size maximums of 15 at the elementary level and 20 at the high school level, would have easily quadrupled teacher costs. The preliminary proposal also called for: 1) a 10-step salary schedule reaching a maximum of $49,000, 2) full state funding of the first three steps and 50 percent funding thereafter, 3) full credit for experience when experienced teachers are hired, 4) state funding only for classroom teachers, and 5) a master teacher plan providing an extra $3,000 to $8,000 for longer days or longer work years.

The union's final report (Chicago Union Teacher, March 1984), however, asked only for a 25 percent annual increase in the minimum teachers salary over a three year period and state support for a maximum teacher salary of $48,000 by 1987. The current minimum, $10,000, compounded annually for three years at 25 percent is $19,531. Implementation of career compensation plans (e.g., career ladder proposals) would be delegated to local districts and teacher bargaining units. Such plans would be based on: 1) the experiential and educational background of the teacher, 2) measurable and fair evaluation, and 3) voluntary application with a 12 month employment opportunity.

The Quality Education Compensation Act of the Illinois Project for School Reform proposes a $16,000 minimum salary (about the projected average beginning teacher salary for 1985-86). All teachers with at least four years of experience could choose to go on a 12 month year with "appropriate" increases in their monthly salary. This shift would occur over a five year period at a rate of one-fifth of the teacher force per year. The extra two months of employment could be used for professional development, curriculum development, adult tutoring, participation in community outreach programs and remedial education. thus, the financing of many possible educational reforms could operate through increasing teacher workloads and paying for a longer work year. If all 95,000 Illinois teachers participated in the plan and got $5,000 (about 20 percent of the average salary) for an extra 2 months, the price tag would be $475 million. The Illinois Project priced the proposal at $200 million. Five $25,000 planning grants for career ladder projects were also proposed.

The Governor proposed an immediate increase in the minimum teacher salary to $15,000, estimated to cost $10.6 million. He also proposed $10.0 million to be distributed as planning grants for performance-based pay programs. Funding for qualifying performance-based pay systems would be funded at levels as high as $50 million -- $30 million, and $20 million over the next three years.

Chicago's proposed long-range plan (Design for Excellence, 1984) called for increased teacher compensation, basing salaries partly on performance, and creating a hierarchy of positions in the classroom for teachers. Chicago United's Agenda for Public Education (1983) recommended increasing teacher salaries, especially at the lower levels, but offered no specific standards. The report noted the slippage of Chicago salaries in the early 1980s compared to other urban districts (Educational Research Service, 1983). Data from the Illinois Teacher Salary Schedule and Policy Study (1984-85) shows that the 31 percent advantage over the average salary of all other districts that Chicago teachers enjoyed in 1980-81 fell to a 20 percent advantage in 1983-84. Today, a number of districts now have higher average salaries than Chicago. The Chicago United report also endorsed "merit pay increments" large enough to be an incentive with no specific limitation on the number of teachers that could earn the increments.

Background

In the mid-19th century, the common school patriarch, Horace Mann, argued that improved teacher salaries would attract individuals committed to teaching. According to Chicago School historian Mary Herrick (1971), in 1863 female elementary teachers in Chicago made $250 per year. Male high school teachers drew $1,000 per year compared to policemen who earned $800 a year. In a 1905 NEA survey of 467 cities, the average female elementary teacher earned $650. In all but four of 48 cities studied in detail, unskilled municipal street and sewer workers earned more.

Nearly every major task force/commission in the 1980s urges better compensation for teachers. Based on 1981 data, the National Commission on Educational Excellence found that, "the average salary after 12 years of teaching is only $17,000 per year, and many teachers are required to supplement their income with part-time and summer employment." In conjunction with an 11-month contract, the Commission recommended increased salaries that are market-sensitive and market-based.

A special task force of the politically moderate Twentieth Century Fund urged a federally funded program for "master teachers" and accused teachers unions of transforming what had once been a noble, though poorly compensation profession into a craft led by collective bargaining organizations with a focus on bread and butter issues -- wages, working conditions, and job security. The Task Force on Education for Economic Growth recommended that states and school districts "dramatically improve methods for recruiting, training, and paying teachers." Apparently declining academic quality and the supposed desertion (from the profession) of bright women fuel the teacher salary debate. U.S. News and World Report (Mar. 14, 1983), for example, labeled the rejection of teaching careers by bright students as an "intense, immediate concern," and asserted that the desertion of young women to jobs with more prestige resulted in "an alarming decline in the quality of teachers entering the classroom." The magazine asserted that low pay is the top reason for the unpopularity of teaching.

Another important reason for the focus on salaries is the hypothesized impending teacher shortage. A report by the normally restrained Rand Corporation (Darling-Hammond, 1984) titled "Beyond the Commission Reports: The Coming Crisis in Teaching," warned that severe teacher shortages could undermine reform efforts. The shortage, they argue, will be a product of the sharp drop in education majors over the past decade, a burst of retirements, and a surge in elementary enrollments. Furthermore, they suggest that able teachers are leaving the classroom and imcompetent teachers are entering. For the 1984-85 school year, Los Angeles had to issue "emergency" credentials to fill 1,800 vacancies (the state has a 30 percent failure rate on the certification test). Baltimore had well over 100 vacancies for 1984-85. New York started 1984-85 with several thousand vacancies. Louisiana lowered passing scores on the competency tests for certification to increase its teacher supply. The Rand report called for a $20,000 minimum salary.

Though several states enacted unusually large pay increases in recent years (e.g., Arkansas, Kentucky, Mississippi, Montana, and Oklahoma), no state has a $20,000 minimum. California is the only state to pass legislation aimed specifically at beginning teacher salaries.

To take advantage of California's minimum salary subsidy, districts must advance the lowest salary on the schedule at a rate of up to 10 percent a year up to a maximum of $21,200 in 1985-86. State funding applies only to presently hired teachers below the minimum. "New hires" do not receive the subsidies. Only 37 percent of districts participated in 1984-85 and only $5.8 million of $25 million appropriated has been spent. State officials attribute low participation to problems created elsewhere in the salary schedule, suspicion that state funding might be withdrawn, and a complicated claims process.

According to the California Tax Payers Foundation (1985) study, no district rejected the program under employee organization pressure, partly because opposition would be "bad politics." Informally, the program met stiff resistance from experienced teachers. Many districts did not like the idea of reshaping the usual salary schedule, and some did not like the idea that the program might bring senior teachers salaries above entry level pay for administrators. Others thought the policy exacerbated high turnover rates. Half of the participating districts incorporated minimum salaries "off" the salary schedule, with state subsidies functioning as a bonus equivalent to the difference between the scheduled salary and the state qualifying salary.

Nationally, the public seems to think teachers are not over paid. According to the Gallup Survey (Phi Delta Kappan, Sept. 1984), only 8% thought teachers salaries were too high, down from 13% in 1981. Between 1981 and 1983, the spate of education reports seems to have convinced many that salaries were too low, with such responses rising from 36% to 47% but declining slightly to 44% in 1984, perhaps in response to enacted reforms in several states. In 1969, however, one of the years with the highest inflation adjusted average teacher salary, 42 percent of the public thought salaries were "too low" and 55 percent felt they were "about right."

	1969	1981	1983	1984
Too Low	42%	36%	47%	44%
Right	55%	51%	42%	48%
Too High	3%	13%	11%	8%

With respect to performance-based pay issues, the Gallup poll showed 75 percent approval for the career ladder idea. Approval for merit pay plans has grown from 56 percent in 1970, to 61 percent in 1983, and to 65 percent in 1984. But the public may have an inclusive definition of "merit." The three most approved criteria for judging merit were: 1) academic achievement of students, 2) administrator's evaluations, and 3) advanced degrees. (This last criterion is already included in most teacher salary schedules).

Educators also show similar approval ratings for the general concept of performance-based pay. A recent survey by the Educator Opinion Poll (1984), sponsored by the American Association of School Administrators, American Association of School Personnel Administrators, Association of School Business Officials, Council of Chief State School Officers, National Association of Secondary School Principals, and National School Public Relations Association indicated that 92 percent of principals and 81.6 percent of teachers "tend to agree" with career ladder proposals. Only half of teachers and two-thirds of administrators, however, agreed with merit pay proposals. Only 18 percent of teachers and 28 percent of principals liked the idea of paying math and science teachers more.

Performance-Based Pay

While raising salaries would encourage talented teachers to stay in teaching, salaries also encourage the least able to stay. The effect of attracting more academically talented new teachers on the overall talent level of the teaching force would be minimal. Only 1.6 percent of the 1981 teaching force (1.7 percent in Illinois for 1983-84) had one year or less of teaching experience, compared to 9.1 percent in 1971. Consequently, most proposals for monetary remuneration involve a performance-based pay concept with some presumed relationship between teaching quality and academic ability and the hope that more of the most able teachers will stay in the profession.

Merit pay is neither a new nor an untested remedy, and the current debate reflects the proposed reforms of the 1920s and 1950s (Johnson, 1984). During the past decade, merit pay programs met little success. The Educational Research Service described 115 merit pay plans in 1978 and examined them again in 1983 (Educ. USA, Oct. 31, 1983). Only 47 plans survived. Among the successful 47 were such districts as Lake Forest and Bloomington, Illinois, both of which never had salary schedules. Major reasons for dropping plans included teacher dissatisfaction, administrative problems, limits placed on the number of qualifying teachers, and removing good teachers from the classroom to do other duties.

Economist Richard Murnane (1981) argues that the merit pay concept adds an element of "risk" to the teaching occupation and that extra pay, or a "risk premium," would have to be added to all salaries to maintain the same quality level. The "risk" in merit pay comes primarily from the factors affecting student learning outcomes beyond the control of the teacher and inaccuracy in evaluating the teacher. Furthermore, disagreements over evaluation would lead to dissension and low morale. If the most able teachers have the most attractive job options outside a teaching career, the risk imposed by an unevenly administered merit pay concept may drive many of the best teachers to other occupations. The least able teachers, though not benefiting from merit pay, would be more likely to remain on the job because they have less favorable employment alternatives.

The career ladder proposal served as the basis for Tennessee's "Master Teacher Program," now called the "Career

Teacher Program." It was endorsed by the Commission on Excellence in Education, the Task Force on Education for Economic Growth, and the Twentieth Century Fund Task Force and received attention in many states. As a more sophisticated variant of the merit pay concept, the career ladder rewards good teaching with monetary remuneration, but also adds additional professional responsibilities.

The criticisms of the career ladder resemble some of the arguments against merit pay, but additional concerns arise. First, the concept of "apprentice teacher" (Tennessee now has a "probationary" rung before the apprentice rung), may actually lower the status of the profession for prospective teachers, especially if salaries fall below the level of current starting salaries. If apprentice salaries remain at current starting levels, the career ladder will require major new financial investment unless the longevity portion of the salary schedule is eliminated. In any event, some longevity is needed to move up the career ladder (Tennessee's proposal once required 11 years to become eligible for the master teacher level), and the most able new teachers may not stay in the profession any longer than they do now.

Under many master teacher plans, master teachers would be required to work during part of the summer on curriculum improvement, or other matters, in return for higher salaries. This idea conflicts with a major attraction for those entering teaching -- long summer vacations (often used for educational extension and attractive for ease of day care) (Status of the American Public School Teacher, 1981). Ranking only behind "desire to work with young people," 37 percent of teachers in 1981 listed the long summer vacation as one of the reasons for staying in teaching. A major obstacle to the Tennessee Master Teacher Plan was teacher opposition to the longer working year, even when accompanied by modest stipends (Phi Delta Kappan, June, 1983). Higher salaries, offset by the longer work year, may not be enough to encourage more bright students to enter the profession.

For 1984-85, 12 Illinois districts had no salary schedule or policy, and 27 had only a formal salary policy (Illinois Teacher Salary Schedule and Policy Study, 1984-85). An increasing number of school districts provide special compensation above the salary schedule, such as employer paid retirement contributions, small longevity increases past the last salary schedule step, and merit pay.

Merit pay programs exist in about 19 districts in Illinois -- the fewest since 30 districts claimed such policies in 1978-79. The Illinois legislature funded a $637,500 master teacher program for the 1983-84 school year. Five hundred master teachers received three "time release days" during which the State paid for substitute teachers. The legislature eliminated the program the following year primarily because it was unpopular among teachers, according to Senator Arthur Berman (Glencoe News, Sept. 20, 1984). Some districts encouraged teachers not to apply, and some teachers claimed they did not participate because it causes resentment. Only 2,200 of the Illinois teachers applied (Educ. Week, April 18, 1984). According to Education Week, the State Board wanted $20 million for the plan before unsuccessfully asking the legislature for only $5 million.

Some master teacher plans around the country met a similar reaction from teachers. Only 10 of 592 school districts in New Jersey applied for the state's master teacher plan (Educ. Week, Dec. 12, 1984). Teachers objected most to a cap of 5 percent on the plan. Master teachers would have received a bonus of up to 5,000. Only 453 (1.8 percent) of $5,000 teachers in Los Angeles applied for a mentor teacher plan funded by the state (Educ. Week, May 16, 1984). Some teachers claimed the $4,000 stipend would be eaten up by increased travel costs, since most mentor teachers would have to go to "hard to staff" schools. Others argued that the state provided only enough money for 2 percent of the teachers in the state to become mentor teachers -- not enough to offer a suitable career rung.

Florida's incentive-pay plan allows teachers to secure a salary increase of up to $5,000 by passing a subject matter examination (Educ. Week, April 18, 1984). Across 48 subject matter areas, however, state officials located reliable examinations in only 6 areas. Though 76 percent of Florida's teachers disapproved of the plan, 30 percent have applied.

California's mentor teachers are selected by committees made up of a majority of classroom teachers. They provide assistance and guidance to new teachers, staff development, and special curriculum development. The mentors must spend at least 60 percent of their time in direct instruction of students and may not evaluate teachers. Mentors receive a $4,000 state-funded stipend above their regular salary, and the state provides $2,000 per mentor for support costs. For 1984-85, 5,178 mentor teacher programs cost California $30.8 million, and about 72 percent of districts with 90 percent of the students participated in the plan.

According to the California Tax Foundation (1985), teachers in only 1 of 25 districts surveyed rejected the plan. Half of the districts negotiated the mentor plans in collective bargaining with the emphasis on mentor selection procedures. Though plans differed from district to district, bargaining did not explain this variation. Several of the 25 districts surveyed had not received enough applications for the alloted spots, and several others experienced minimal competition. Most of the $2,000 in state support funding went for substitutes. Release time, however, was less than expected because of mentor resistance to leaving the classroom.

On the other hand, more than 38,000 of Tennessee's 41,000 eligible teachers and administrators applied to the program (Educ. Week, Oct. 8, 1984). The first rung, which carries a $1,000 bonus, requires taking the National Teachers Examination (NTE), the Tennessee Career Ladder Test, or participating in a 40-hour skills-building course offered on a local basis. Half of the applicants chose the ladder route. The Tennessee Education Association, however, opposed the 5-rung master teacher plan until they had secured the following changes:

-- A change in name from master teacher plan to career teacher plan.
-- Local, instead of state, evaluations at the 2nd and 3rd rungs.
-- Teacher exit at any time to the old salary schedule.
-- The skills-building course as an alternative to the National Teachers Examination.
-- No quotas on the number of master teachers -- now called Career Level Two and Career Level Three teachers -- that were once set at 15 percent for the highest rung, and 25 percent for the next highest.

After a one year probation, apprentice teachers (second rung) get $500 extra; Career Level One teachers get $1,000; Career Level Two get $2,000; and Career Level Three teachers get $3,000.

Trends in Teachers' Salaries

Over the past few years, trends in teacher salaries have been assessed against the Consumer Price Index (CPI). The National Education Association calculates that the 1980 average salary of $17,602 was 15 percent lower than the 1977 inflation-adjusted salary (actual was $12,005, adjusted for inflation was $19,654) and lower than the inflation-adjusted salary earned in 1972 (actual was $9,261, adjusted for inflation was $20,587), the all-time high (Digest of Educational Statistics, 1982). The same methodology, however, shows that the buying power of the average American worker fell 10 percent over the 1977-82 period, an implausible conclusion because at least some economic growth occurred over the period. The problem arises from using the CPI to adjust for inflation.

The CPI tends to overestimate inflation during periods of high inflation and interest rates. CPI calculations are based on a bundle of goods established in 1967, and consequently do not adjust for the shift in consumer spending patterns from inflation-prone goods to lower-priced goods. Perhaps more important, until 1983 the housing component of the CPI, which makes up 46 percent of the index, was based on current market interest rates for owner-occupied homes. Only a small fraction of homeowners actually paid the interest rates entered into the index.

As a result of the overestimates, when teachers look at their salary increase and compare it to the CPI, the loss seems greater than a comparison to the average full-time worker -- a better measure of the status of teaching salaries. First, the comparison requires no inflation adjustment, presuming uniformity of inflation's impact on teachers and the average worker. Second, the comparison raptures the extent to which teachers share in economic growth (i.e., in a growing economy we should expect rising inflation-adjusted wages for most workers.) According to a comparison provided by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) and shown in Table 15-1 (column 5), the ratio of teacher to average worker income was 1.02 in 1929-30; it rose to 1.12 by 1939-40. Following another low of 1.03 in 1949-50, the advantage of teachers rose to 1.11 by 1959-60 and peaked at 1.20 in 1969-70. During the past decade, the ratio fell to 1.11 by 979-80 but then rose to 1.14 for 1981-82.

A comparison of the teacher cost index (column 7) in Table 15-1 to the consumer price index (column 6) reveals that teachers would be rather poor individuals had their salaries only kept pace with inflation. The gap between the teacher cost index and the price index denotes the rise in the standard of living over the 52 year period examined in the table. Note that the labor cost index rose almost as fast as teacher costs, which indicates that the average worker's standard of living increased almost as much as for teachers.

If teachers are not paid enough now, today's situation appears typical rather than exceptional. Twenty-five years ago James Conant (1963) believed that teacher salaries in the U.S. were low relative to international standards because of the traditional American emphasis on quantity rather than quality, on mass education rather than elitism. About 90 percent of youth age 17 to 18 attend school in the U.S. compared to 20 percent in Europe. College completion rates in this country -- about 25 percent of the school age population -- are about triple European rates. Many college teachers in the U.S. would probably teach high school in Europe, Conant argues. Both factors increase the need for secondary and

TABLE 15-1

	UNADJUSTED DOLLARS		1981-1982 PURCHASING POWER					
	Salary per member of instructional staff (1)	Earnings per full time employee working for wages or salary (2)	Salary per member of instructiona staff (3)	Earnings per full-time employee working for wages or salary (4)	Column 3 divided by column 4 (5)	Consumer price index (6)	(a) Teacher cost index (7)	(b) Labor cost index (8)
1929-30	$1,420	$1,386	$7,808	$7,621	1.02	1.00	1.00	1.00
1939-40	1,441	1,282	9,704	8,633	1.12	0.82	1.01	0.92
1949-50	3,010	2,930	11,963	11,645	1.03	1.38	2.12	2.12
1959-60	5,174	4,632	16,574	14,838	1.12	1.71	3.64	3.34
1969-70	8,840	7,334	22,028	18,276	1.21	2.20	6.22	5.29
1979-80	16,773	15,094	20,336	18,300	1.11	4.53	11.81	10.89
1981-82	20,114	17,620	20,114	17,620	1.14	5.50	14.16	12.77

Source: Table entries derived from Digest of Educational Statistics, 1983 Edition

(a) Percentage growth of column 1

(b) Percentage growth of column 2

university level teachers, thus decreasing the possibility of academic selectivity and higher monetary rewards.

As the Commission on Excellence in Education points out, part-time work is common among teachers. Teachers have always resorted to outside earnings. In 1963, James Conant wrote that, "In many communities it is almost impossible for a man to support a family on what he earns as a teacher," and that, "Far too often he feels forced to take on other work during the school year to supplement his income." The percentage of teachers reporting additional income was identical in 1976 and 1981 at 50.8 percent, a decline from 56.6 percent in 1971 and 53 percent in 1956. Throughout 1980, seventy percent of male teachers earned additional income averaging $3,365; proportionally, for every male teacher that would be $2,377, or 14 percent of contract income (Status of the American Public School Teachers, 1981). Forty-one percent of female teachers averaged $1,708 additional income, or $705 for every female teacher, which is 4 percent of contract income. The additional 1980 income estimated for all teachers, 14 percent of contractual income, was lower than in 1976 (16.3 percent) or 1971 (16.0 percent), reflecting, perhaps, that the downturn in the economy damaged second-job opportunities more than teaching salaries.

Another consideration in assessing teacher salary trends is on "household income" rather than individual salaries. Household income represents total income from all wage-earners in the family. In 1981, household income of $29,830 for teachers was 73 percent greater than the average teacher salary and 36 percent greater than the U.S. average household income (Status of the American Public School Teacher, 1981). Not surprisingly, household income of female teachers, ($31,068) when combined with the generally higher income of their husbands, exceeded household income of male teachers ($27,729). For female teachers, average household income exceeded their own average salary by 85 percent.

Even if one can argue that average teacher salaries have not declined substantially in comparison to other workers, a trend towards lower starting salaries may contribute to long-run declines in the quality of teaching. Low starting salaries are thought to discourage talented college-bound seniors from studying education and tend to deter graduates from entering the teaching force. Writing about the labor market for new college graduates, economist Richard Freeman (1976) argues that the most sensitive indicator of market reality is the economic status of new graduates. All new college graduates and only a few experienced workers are on the active market at any given time. While private firms are able to alter firing patterns and starting salaries, collective bargaining agreements between teachers and the Board of Education constrain market adjustments through the alteration of starting salaries, thus aggravating supply-demand imbalances.

Evidence on the status and trends for starting salary is mixed. The widely used Endicott Report (1984) places teachers on the bottom of the scale, below liberal arts graduates, even after adjusting the salary to a 12-month equivalent. NCES reports that 1978 college graduates majoring in education received starting salaries 96 percent as large as the average college graduate, but that the ratio had fallen to 85% by 1981 (Recent College Graduate Survey, 1981). The ratio change might reflect improved entering opportunities in other fields since starting salaries for all college graduates are more volatile than in education.

But entering salaries are only part of the picture. A National Education Association survey showed that, between 1971 and 1981, salaries for teachers under age 35 grew by 66 percent, but rose 84 percent for the 40 to 49 age group, and 92 percent for the 50+ age group (Status of the American Public School Teacher, 1981). In 1965, those over 50 reported salaries 24 percent greater than for those under 30. By 1980, the percent advantage doubled to 48 percent. In Illinois, the median salary of the highest step on the salary schedule increased at a ratio of 6.0 percent a year from 1981 through 1984, while beginning salaries rose at a rate of only 5.3 percent.

Despite an increase of two years in average teacher experience since 1976, salaries have remained roughly constant. This is because a rapidly increasing proportion of teachers have reached the maximum step on salary scales, usually 15 years. In 1981, 37 percent of the teaching force had at least 15 years of experience, compared to 26 percent in 1976 and 28 percent in 1971. By 1985-86, the average teacher in Illinois will have had 14 years of experience (Illinois Teacher Salary Schedule and Policy Survey, 1984-85). Presently, half of Chicago's teachers already have 15 years in the classroom. Most teacher salary schedules give raises for each additional year of experience (called longevity raises) up to 15 years. Thus, the rising percentage of teachers at the maximum step on the salary schedule may also explain the apparent increasing dissatisfaction with salaries.

These trends indicate that the focus on the minimum salary in Illinois is well directed, but the trend towards increasing the top bracket is not accidental, and strengthening the bottom end of the salary schedule runs counter to the interests of the experienced membership of the teaching profession.

The cost estimates of the ISBE and the Illinois Commission clearly indicate that increasing the beginning salary to $20,000 is only an index for general salary improvement, and that the existing salary dispersion within and among districts would be preserved. The $20,000 benchmark ignores many important reasons why salaries vary among districts, such as the higher costs of living and working in urban areas. In rural Illinois, $20,000 might be generous, but in the Chicago area that salary might be inadequate. A teacher salary index calculated for the ISBE as part of the Resource Cost Model effort (Chambers and Parrish, 1982) indicated that Chicago teacher salaries need to be about 8 percent higher than the state average and 16 percent higher than non-metropolitan districts, just to compensate for higher prices and other negative features of urban living. A policy aimed only at those teachers earning less than $20,000 would disproportionately favor rural districts.

Existing Cost Estimates

The Illinois Project for School Reform proposes $125,000 for 5 career ladder pilot programs, while the governor intends to distribute $10.6 million in the fall of 1985 as planning grants to an unspecified number of districts. The preliminary Illinois Commission cost estimates (Reference Note 1, but not the final report) seek to funding for 10-15 experimental programs aimed at, "providing a wider array of roles and responsibilities within teaching." The $30,000,000 price tag would be split 50-50 between states and local governments on a matching basis. The ISBE (Reference Note 2), with estimates identical to the Illinois Commission's (Reference Note 1), calculated that $17 million would be needed to raise the minimum beginning salary to $20,000 for 10,000 teachers by 1987-88.

The Illinois Project for School Reform proposes $200 million for its Quality Compensation Act, which offers added pay for opting for a 12 month work-year. No explanation of the calculation appears, nor do we know if full implementation costs are included or just the first year costs. According to the ISBE, an immediate five percent across the board increase for all classroom teachers would cost $125 million (Reference Note 2). If just half of all teachers chose to add two months to their contract resulting in a 20 percent pay increase, the 1985-86 full implementation cost would be $250 million.

The Illinois Commission and ISBE estimates for raising the beginning salary to $20,000 and preserving existing percentage differences within and among teachers are both identical. Every salary in the state would rise by the same percentage as the one needed to raise the average beginning salary to

$20,000 in 1987-88. Across-the-board salary increases of 5 percent are calculated to add $125 million in 1985-86, and to accumulate to $396 million by 1987-88. The State would contribute $80 million in 1985-86, and by 1987-88 would need to come up with $275 million over the general state support level, which would also have to include annual increases at rates necessary to instigate 5 percent across-the-board salary raises. Salary growth averaged 6.8 percent, 5.4 percent, and 5.4 percent over the last three years in Illinois.

The ISBE/Illinois Commission estimates may fall considerably short of the actual revenue needed to achieve an average beginning salary of $20,000. The detailed assumptions failed to give salary assumptions and the number of personnel affected. If a five percent across-the-board salary increase costs $125 million for 1985-86 (Reference Note 1) and the average statewide salary is $25,512 for classroom teachers in 1984-85 (Illinois Teacher Salary Schedule Survey, 1984-85), a base of 93,350 teachers is implied, far short of an estimated 105,000 classroom teachers (Annual Report, 1984). If the approximately 11,500 administrator and pupil personnel were included, cost estimates escalate by at least 25 percent. Furthermore, retirement obligations would increase in proportion to the salary increments, thus adding at least another 10 percent to the estimates to cover new state and local obligations.

The detailed assumptions also do not explain specific data about starting salaries and the percentage increase needed to get to the figure of $20,000 by 1987-88. Two problems emerge. First, a 5 percent average pay increase would result in not more than a 4 percent increase in beginning salaries (beginning salaries rose 8.0, 5.6, 3.2, and 4.6 percent for 1981-84; average salaries rose 10.2, 6.8, 5.4, and 5.4 percent for 1981-84) because of educational and longevity increments for experienced teachers.

If the 1984-85 average beginning salary of $15,291 grew at a 4 percent rate each year, by 1987-88, the beginning salary would reach only $17,200. An additional increase of 16.27 percent would be needed to reach the $20,000 figure. If the 1984-85 average salary of $25,512 rose at a rate of 5 percent each year, the average salary would improve to $29,533 by 1987. Multiplying this $29,533 by the additional 16.27 percent equals another $4,805 for the average teacher. Over 105,000 classroom teachers, the total new revenue needed to bring beginning teachers to $20,000 while maintaining the existing percentage distribution among experienced teachers is $504 million -- far in excess of the $274 million in the ISBE/Illinois Commission estimates. Even if a beginning salary increase matched the 5 percent rate, beginning salaries would rise to only $17,700 and require an additional 13 percent increase to reach $20,000. A 13 percent increase for 105,000 classroom teachers, assuming the average teacher's salary grew at a 5 percent rate, would require an additional $402 million.

Implications for Educational Standards and the Supply of Teachers

Just as salaries need to rise when academic standards increase to prevent an undersupply of new teachers, standards must be raised to prevent an oversupply of new teachers as salaries increase. While the market place guarantees that salaries would rise as standards increase without state action, it is not clear that districts would hire the most academically talented college graduates attracted more to the profession by higher salaries. The Illinois Commission cost estimates indicate a 10 percent increase in beginning teacher salaries over what might be expected with no special State intervention. As noted, however, the $20,000 beginning salary may require a 17 percent increase. The dependence of the percent increase needed to raise beginning salaries to $20,000 on various assumptions about growth indicates that the $20,000 standard should be replaced by a clearly stated across-the-board salary increase percentage.

Econometric research by the National Bureau for Economic Research (Mansky, 1985), using the National Longitudinal Survey of the high school class data base, indicates that to maintain a constant supply of new entrants, a 10 percent increase in compensation must be accompanied by raising standards high enough to prevent the least able 12 percent from entering the profession. A 17 percent increase would require that the bottom 25 percent of applicants be excluded.

The full effects of a 10 percent or 17 percent increase in the average salary of the average teacher are unknown. Certainly, fewer teachers would leave the profession -- including both the brightest and the dullest. If experienced teachers have the same wage elasticity (the percentage change in supply of teachers divided by the percentage salary change) of 2.5 which the NBER research suggests for new teachers, the rate of exit from the profession might slow by as much as 25 percent given a 10 percent pay increase. Thus, fewer new jobs would be left for the newer and now brighter entering teachers, but school districts could employ higher standards in measured academic aptitude for their new hires.

Reform Cost Estimates

Except for the low cost estimate, which represents a suggested appropriation, the remainder of the cost estimates depend on rather specific assumptions about teacher behavior and salary trends.

	Illinois	Chicago
Low Cost (Governor)	$ 21,000,000	$ 2,600,000
Medium Cost (Tennessee Career Teacher Plan)	227,000,000	45,540,000
Medium Cost (Quality Education Compensation Act)	391,143,750	94,378,000
High Cost ($20,000 minimum salary-ISBE and Illinois Commission)	860,962,000	206,110,000

Low Cost (Governor). This figure represents the $10.4 million the Governor designated for incentive-pay/planning grants, and the $10.6 aimed at districts where some teachers earn less than $15,000. Chicago is assumed to get 25 percent of the planning grant application. The $10.4 million will not provide across-the-board salary increases, however. If given only to teachers earning less than $15,000 -- rather than to all teachers in districts with beginning salaries lower than $15,000 -- $10.4 million might be sufficient. Assuming a 5 percent increase from the previous year, the median beginning salary by 1985-86 will be $15,065. Nearly half of all districts would be eligible for some aid.

Medium Cost (Tennessee Career Teacher Plan). The Governor, the Illinois Project for School Reform, and the Illinois Commission (in its cost estimates) propose funding of pilot performance-based or career ladder plans. The median cost configuration roughly estimates the cost of the full implementation of a hypothetical plan modeled on the Tennessee Career Teacher Plan. About 115,000 educational personnel would participate, including pupil personnel staff and assistant principals. The rungs would be comprised of apprentice teachers (2%), probationary teachers (10%) with stipends of $500, Career Level One teachers (48%) with stipends of $1,000, Career Level Two teachers (25%) with stipends of $2,000, and Career Level Three teachers (15%) with additional stipends of $3,000. Among Career Level Two teachers, 10 percent are assumed to add a month of work in the summer for an additional $2,000. Among Career Level Three teachers, 5 percent are assumed to add one month of work for another $2,000, and 5 percent add two months of work for $4,000 more. The total bill comes to $198,000,000. If 23,000 are eligible in Chicago, $45 million of the career ladder monies would flow to the city. These estimates may be too low, since Tennessee plans to spend $122 million on 46,000 eligible personnel. Administration and evaluation costs are expected to add 20 percent to the costs of the Tennessee program.

Medium Cost Plan (Quality Education Compensation Act). The rather general description of the Act is operationalized by the following assumptions:

- Ninety percent of teachers would have more than 4 years of experience and would be eligible for the 12 month contracts.
- A 12 month contract adds 20 percent to salaries even though teachers work 40-42 weeks -- a little less than 10 months.
- Two-thirds of teachers would extend their contracts during the summer (37 percent of teachers gave long summer vacations as one of the three main reasons for staying in teaching as a career in the 1981 NEA survey).
- Benefit costs would not increase since annual benefit payments already are apportioned to cover a 12 month year.

Again, using a base of 115,000 education personnel statewide, at a predicted 1985-86 salary of $25,512, yields a $340 million figure. In Chicago, the base of 23,000 eligible educational personnel and a predicted salary of 5 percent over the 1984-85 level, or $30,776, requires $94 million.

High Cost Estimates (ISBE/Illinois Commission). These estimates follow the basic procedures of the ISBE/Illinois Commission cost estimates:

- Assume that by 1987-88, the teaching force will have about the same number of new teachers and the same experience distribution.
- Preserve existing percentage salary differentials within and among districts.

For reasons outlined in the "existing cost estimates" section, a 5 percent average annual salary increase would probably result in no more than a 4 percent rise in beginning salaries, and by 1987-88, beginning salaries would equal $17,200. An additional 16.27 percent increase would be needed to bring the average beginning salary to $20,000. (The ISBE/Illinois Commission estimates that $17.2 million would still be needed to bring those teachers still earning under $20,000 up to that level.)

For statewide estimates, the 16.27 percent increase is applied to:

1) A predicted 1987-88 teacher's salary of $29,533 (to which 10 percent is added to account for retirement obligations at the local level and $2,500 for state-funded retirement obligations) for 110,000 teachers.
2) A predicted 1987-88 administrator salary of $40,150 (to which 10 percent is added to account for

retirement obligations at the local level and 3,000 for state-funded retirement contributions) for 11,000 administrators.

Administrator salaries (Statistical Profile of Illinois School Administrators, 1983-84) represent the weighted mean salaries of district personnel, principals, assistant principals, deans, supervisors, coordinators, consultants, and directors. Since career service salaries often hinge on teacher contract settlements, either formally or informally, the cost impact of this third effect is estimated by assuming that career service salaries and retirement benefits equal one-third of certified personnel salaries, and that they would share in the across-the-board teachers' salary increase at an average rate of about 50 percent.

Chicago estimates are calculated in the same way but are based on an expected teacher salary of $33,931, and average administrator salaries of $40,780. Local retirement obligations of 15 percent are assumed. The salary and retirement data are applied to 21,000 teachers and pupil personnel, and 1,388 administrators. Career service salaries are assumed to be 28 percent of teacher and administrator salaries, and career service personnel are assumed to enjoy 75 percent of the salary growth of teachers.

F. ADMINISTRATIVE CONFIGURATIONS

16. School District Consolidation

The Illinois Project for School Reform recommends that all school districts operate as unit districts, but districts would be allowed to petition to the Illinois State Board of Education for exemption. Though the ISBE would have final jurisdiction, little consolidation would be forced on districts by a state education agency. The Illinois Project also recommends that school districts considered too large, such as Chicago, might be divided into smaller units. The Illinois Taxpayers Foundation not only wants consolidation of elementary and secondary districts but also wants at least 1,000 students in each district (League of Women Voters Illinois Education Fund, 1985).

The Illinois Commission recommended only that local districts, the ISBE, and the General Assembly should encourage a review of school size and district organization utilizing academic achievement as the major criteria of organizational effectiveness. The Illinois Commission in their final report, however, charges that "the organization of schools in the state is complex, frequently duplicative, inefficient and costly." The Commission also recommended in their final report that the State assess the efficiency of the Chicago school district in delivering quality education.

The Illinois Public School Finance Project (1982), a major project funded by the legislature and staffed by the ISBE, recommended that all unit districts be given equal access to the combined tax rates of separate elementary and high school districts in all funds. Currently, coterminous dual districts forming a unit district may have the combined maximum tax rate of the separate elementary and secondary districts for the educational operations, building and maintenance funds. For many other funds, however, separate elementary and high school districts generate more taxing authority than they would as unit districts. The governor supports the Public School Finance Project's position with respect to new consolidation of elementary and high school districts. The Governor's plan also provides $1 million annually to help districts hire third-party consultants in district reorganization efforts. The ISBE has a $60,000 budget request for a school district reorganization study. Occasionally the ISBE provides services to local districts to study reorganization and building plans.

The Illinois Public School Finance Project also contends that small school districts pay higher costs per pupil than larger school districts, and suggests that school districts that are "necessarily small" districts should be distinguished from those that are small by choice. A subcommittee was established to specify Illinois criteria. School districts identified as necessarily small would receive the necessary state aid to provide quality education for the pupils. School districts identified as small by choice would be allowed to continue but without the provision of special state aid.

The Illinois Education Association officially supports greater consolidation in Illinois (Quad-City Times, May 17, implementation of comprehensive curriculum requirements. Small districts have also resisted collective bargaining and unionization.

Background

In 1825, before Chicago had its first citizen, Illinois passed the Free School Law which provided for the establishment of free common schools in each county of the state. School districts sprang up all over the State to serve the various communities. Elementary districts were by far the most numerous, since an adequate education consisted of about three years of formal instruction. High school and unit districts developed later as the demand for higher levels of instruction evolved. By 1940, there were 11,996 school districts in Illinois. Of these 11,996 districts, 11,282 districts or 94 percent were elementary districts. Social and economic changes in the country led to greater demands on public schools and many districts were too small to operate economically.

In 1945, the General Assembly provided incentives for the formation of unit districts (School Finance and Tax Commission, 1947). Before 1945, taxing authority for unit districts equaled the combined taxing authority of elementary and high school districts. The legislature changed the qualifying tax rates for equalization aid (the minimum tax rate to qualify for state aid) to $1.00 for elementary, $0.75 for high school and $1.50 for unit districts. Thus, taxpayers would be more inclined to vote for the consolidation of districts, since unit districts qualified for state aid with a lower tax rate. Furthermore, school districts with less than seven pupils were not eligible for state aid, unless certified as necessary by the county and state superintendents. The legislation of 1945, combined with social and economic changes in the United States, had considerable impact upon district reorganization. The number of school districts declined from 11,784 in 1945 to 4,415 in 1950. Elementary districts declined from 11,042 to 3,771, while unit districts increased from 86 to 295 over the same period. Since then, the process of consolidation moved more slowly, but by 1970 Illinois had only 1,174 districts and by 1984 just 1006 districts.

The common view of almost all reports/commissions on school district reorganization in Illinois is that the state still has too many school districts to function effectively and efficiently. Illinois, the fifth most populous state in the country, ranks third after Texas and California in the number of school districts (McGuire and Van Dougherty, 1984). It is also one of only three states (including Wisconsin and California) to allow separate elementary and high school districts. Furthermore, elementary and high school boundaries are often not coterminous in Illinois, and elementary school graduates often attend different high schools. In Wisconsin seven out of eight districts are unit districts; elementary and high school districts have coterminous boundaries. The obstacles to school district reorganization in Illinois prior to 1983 may be listed under three categories. First, the strong attachments communities develop for their schools. Second, the procedures for consolidation were too demanding and restrictive. Third, a number of financial disincentives discouraged consolidation.

Prior to 1983, procedures for consolidation had a tendency to discourage school district reorganization. School district reorganization could be initiated under different statutes in the Illinois School Code (Articles 7-1, 7-2, 11-1 and 11-6), each with a different, sometimes inconsistent, set of requirements. Yet another obstacle involved situations where only a part of a district was to be included in the new unit. Both a majority of the voters residing within the proposed new district as well as a majority of the electors who resided outside the proposed new district had to approve the consolidation proposal. Though this provision protected districts against loss of areas of high property value to neighboring districts, nevertheless it posed an obstacle to reorganization.

A number of financial disincentives discouraged elementary and high school districts from consolidating prior to 1983, including: 1) disproportionate tax rates, 2) loss of state aid, 3) debt assumption, and 4) teacher salary differentials. The General Assembly addressed these issues in 1983, except for the problem of disproportionate tax rates.

The maximum tax rate without referendum in the Educational Fund was .92 percent for an elementary district as well as for a high school district, totaling 1.84 percent, but it was only 1.6 percent for a unit district formed under Article 11-1. The equally high maximum rate for elementary districts, even though the latter contain twice as many students, prevents dual district consolidation. In addition to losses in the Educational Fund, unit districts also had lower access to local tax money in the Operations, Building and Maintenance Fund, Transportation Fund, Working Cash Fund and Fire Prevention, Safety, Environmental and Energy Fund than the combined tax authority of the dual districts. It has been estimated that dual districts consolidating under Article 11-1 would lose 21 percent of their combined maximum permissive tax rates (Illinois Public School Finance Project, 1982).

Prior to 1983, the total amount of general state aid a unit district received often fell significantly below that available to separate dual districts. As districts with large variations in per pupil wealth consolidated, the poorer areas of the new district did not generate the same state aid as they would have as separate districts (Illinois Public School

Finance Project, 1982). Currently the required operating tax rate (need to qualify for maximum state aid) is only 2.92 percent for unit districts but 1.10 percent for high school districts and 1.90 for elementary distract. The law prior to 1983 also required that all debt of the old districts be assumed by the new district. Hence, districts free of debt were reluctant to consolidate with indebted districts. Finally, salary differentials between teachers in elementary and high schools still pose an obstacle to reorganization due to the need to "level up" elementary salaries. The average salary of teachers in high school districts rises 32 percent above average salaries for the state. In Cook County they are 38 percent higher (special tabulation, Data Management Administration, Illinois State Board of Education, 1985). Nationally, all high school teachers salaries average only three percent higher salary than elementary teachers (Status of the American Public School Teacher, 1981).

In 1983, the Illinois General Assembly addressed many potential obstacles and provided that: 1) state aid would not fall as a result of consolidation, 2) supplementary state aid would assist consolidating districts with large debt differences, but only after a number of adjustments dealing with fund balances, and 3) supplemental aid would assist in closing salary differentials. The problems of "local pride and local loyalties," and the financial disincentives of disproportionate permissive tax rates remain. Supplemental state aid falls far short of the amount needed to close salary differentials. Supplemental aid is given for only 24 months. After this period, the new district would be on its own. The statewide average teacher salary in 1983-84 was $22,440 for elementary districts and $29,561.10 for secondary districts (Data Management Administration, ISBE, 1985). The difference was even greater for Cook County, excluding Chicago, where the average elementary district teacher salary in 1983-84 was $24,224.44 and $33,479.18 for secondary districts. Since 1983, however, more than 300 school districts have expressed an interest in reorganization (St. Louis Post-Dispatch, May 24, 1984).

Economic and Educational Effect of Reorganization

Studies of school district reorganization often cite cost reduction as the major rationale for consolidation. Hickrod and Sabulao (1971) reported that as the size of enrollment increased, school expenditure decreased up to a certain point in the size continuum, after which per pupil costs started to climb. For economic efficiency in terms of gross expenditure, they found that 1) elementary districts should have a minimum size of 250, a maximum of 3,000 and an optimum of 750; 2) secondary districts should have a minimum of 175, a maximum of 2,000 and an optimum of 500; and 3) unit districts should have a minimum of 1,000, a maximum of 35,000 and an optimum of 5,000. The researchers concluded that in Illinois, there were a number of small and large districts that could be considered to be operating in "diseconomy."

In 1973, the Governor's Commission on Schools (Opportunities for Excellence, 1983) reported that small school districts were more expensive to operate and maintain than larger districts. The commission arrived at the following minimum sizes for Illinois school districts: elementary districts - 1,000; secondary districts - 500; unit districts - 1,500.

Hickrod et al. (1975) in a study of cost-size relationships of school districts in Illinois reported that districts operating most efficiently in 1974 were elementary districts of 336 students, secondary districts of 874 students and unit districts of 2,432 students. But they cautioned against any "fixation on magic numbers" because the "optimum" size will vary depending upon the criteria used to judge "optimum."

For 1984-85 in Illinois, 247 elementary districts enrolled fewer than 500 students, 35 high school districts had less than 500 students, and 270 unit districts contained less than 1,000 students.

Studies recommending reorganization in terms of district type generally favor unit districts for reasons related both to cost efficiency and equity. Hickrod and Sabulao (1971) found unit districts more economical to operate than elementary and secondary school districts of comparable combined size and recommended the reorganization of dual districts into unified districts of sufficient size to benefit from the least-cost-combination. Relative to quality of educational opportunity, however, the Governor's Commission on Schools (1973) found no difference between dual and unit districts. This commission concluded that school district size was the critical factor in determining the scope and overall adequacy of a district's programs and services rather than its organizational type.

Hinrichs et al. (1983) formed pseudo-unit districts by merging all elementary districts into the overlying secondary districts, so that Illinois would have a little less than 600 unit districts. With this arrangement, less variation in expenditures per pupil exists and less dependence of expenditures per pupil upon local district wealth was found. But the authors do not recommend such an action because of the many possible adverse consequences, such as the removal of the well respected "light house" districts, the formation of unit districts too large to be economically efficient, the displacement of over 400 public school superintendents and safety factors in transporting pupils over long distances in enlarged districts. The staff of the Illinois State Board of Education studied reorganization with districts organized on the basis of counties (Personal Communication, Suzanne Langston, ISBE). Each county formed a unit district, giving Illinois a total of 102 county districts. If school districts were so organized, public schools in Illinois would save more than $60 million a year due to scale economies. Since the study compares the "appropriate" educational costs, as determined by the Resource Cost Model (rather than actual costs) of 1,000 existing districts to the costs of the hypothetical county districts, cost savings could vary substantially from the $60 million figure due to scale economies.

One potential advantage of high school districts paying their teachers substantially more than teachers in the elementary districts under their umbrella should be noted. Though possibly "inequitable" and "sexist," the higher salaries might attract specialist teachers in areas like math and science that unit districts cannot attract. Despite little formal evidence, the higher salaries might attract more academically talented individuals to high school teaching. Elementary district officials tend to blame higher salaries at the high school district level on voter myopia; that is, voters tend to equate high school and elementary tax levies even though high schools have half as many students. Voters, however, may also be showing approval of a differentiated salary structure.

Reform Cost Estimates

Since cost savings provide the principal motivation for consolidation, it is not surprising that cost issues receive little attention. The ISBE estimated that by organizing districts into 102 county school districts generates cost savings due to economies of scale (e.g., optimum class size, efficient administration, etc.) of only $60 million, or about $70 million in 1985-86 dollars. The educational program of many students might be improved, however, due to expanded curriculum. But community pride and involvement might also diminish. Attaching dollar benefits and costs to these charges proves difficult.

Recent state action and the varied reform proposals suggest costs in several areas:

-- Allowing the same taxing authority for newly combined districts as when they are separate.
-- Insuring against state aid loss.
-- Debt burden equalization assistance.
-- Salary equalization assistance.
-- Planning grants to help districts figure out the complexities of consolidation laws and complete the necessary demographic and cost analyses.

The first two efforts do not generate new costs for the State, but they serve to prevent cost savings in some instances. Debt burden and salary equalization assistance already exist, but it lowers local costs by an equal amount. Salary equalization assistance, however, represents new costs, and the two year limit for aid falls far short of the incentive needed to close the substantial gap between elementary and high school assistance in many districts.

Three cost estimates are presented for consideration:

	Illinois	Chicago
Low Cost (Illinois Commission)	$ 40,000	$ -0-
Medium Cost (Governor)	1,000,000	-0-
High Cost	196,275,000	-0-

Low Cost (Illinois Commission). The $40,000 figure published in the Commission's cost estimates (Reference Note 1) pays for a single full-time employee to analyze districts and school testing data to locate districts and schools where small size contributes to low achievement.

Medium Cost (Governor). Recently, the state made a number of complex changes in laws regarding consolidation. The $1 million would not only provide assistance in understanding the changes, but would also help provide the demographic and financial studies needed to inform local citizens about the consolidation decision.

High Cost. The $196 million figure is the product of approximately 25,000 teachers in elementary districts and the projected 1985-86 salary differential between elementary and high school teachers of $7,851 statewide. Most of the allocation would go to suburban Cook County, which includes some of the wealthiest areas in the State. Long-run costs, however, may diminish considerably under a single salary schedule as voters and the market place gradually moves salaries to the average of the two.

G. COMMUNITY AFFAIRS

17. School-Business Relations

The Illinois Commission left school-business relationships off their reform agenda. The Illinois State Board of Education limits consideration of school-business relationships to the traditional areas of vocational education and employment training. The ISBE wants improved coordination on a regional labor market basis of these programs: of high school vocational education, post-secondary vocational education, area vocational centers, adult education, and a variety of private sector training programs -- on a regional labor market basis (Annual Report, 1984). Creative arrangements between schools, business, industry, and labor specifically in the loan of worksites and workers would be encouraged through incentive grant programs. The Governor follows the incentive grant approach. Fellowships of up to $2,000 would be available for private sector summer employment (emphasizing "mentoring" or "job shadowing") of at least 1,500 of Illinois' 7,100 vocational education teachers. The Governor also proposes that the state should contribute $9.00 for every $1.00 donated by the private sector to equipment funds at the local level. Funding at the $8 million level would dwindle to $1 million in two years. From a different perspective, the CTU asks that business-sponsored school programs must be supportive of, and enhance, the established curriculum.

The Illinois Project on School Reform proposes the only comprehensive program of school/business relationships that would influence the entire school curriculum:

1) An Education-Business Department within the Illinois State Board of Education would have such responsibilities as (a) promoting Business-Created Schools, (b) creating Business-Sponsored Teacher Institutes, (c) creating Business Internships for Teachers, and (d) providing leadership in creating business internships for teachers.

2) Regional Education-Business Councils would be established by the regional superintendents to provide coordination and planning for business-education cooperative programs in the educational service regions.

3) School Business Compacts would be modeled after the very successful Boston Compact -- an organization consisting of business and education leaders in Boston. In essence, Boston schools agree to produce better educated students in return for the support of the business community.

4) Under the Illinois Board of Higher Education Business Talent in the Schools Program, colleges and universities would be encouraged to establish programs to provide training for business people who want to teach in public schools.

5) The Education Leadership Academy of Illinois would encourage active participation of the business community in the planning, administration and instruction in the Leadership Academy of Illinois.

6) Regional Education-Business Councils would establish guidelines for a merit school program under which outstanding schools would receive cash awards to be distributed to personnel.

7) The Illinois Education Venture Capital Fund would be established to provide "venture capital" for innovative and creative approaches to education delivery. The General Assembly would initiate the fund with an appropriation of $500,000 to be administered by the Illinois State Board of Education. Thereafter, the state would match whatever funds were raised through profitable enterprise or private sector contributions. It is not clear what the matching rate would be or whether the state would match funds collected locally, or match contributions to the Venture Capital Fund itself.

8) The Educational Privatization Project would provide $100,000 for 6-10 pilot programs to explore the possibilities of turning over certain functions of the schools to the private sector.

However, more of the reform agendas explicitly take cognizance of the primary relationship between business and public education. The major contribution of business to public schools is through taxation. In the past, taxes on business have provided a major portion of the costs of local education. While business taxes are still crucial, its share of the support of her schools has been declining since the mid-1970s.

The new Illinois Constitution, adopted in 1970, outlawed the Corporate Personal Property tax, but allowed a phase out period to minimize local tax revenue discription. By the mid-seventies, businesses were withholding payment of this tax, resulting in collective if only 45% of the asessed taxes in the late 1970s. In 1979, the Corporate Personal Property Replacement taxes were instituted in place of the odious personal property assessments. After peaking in 1981, when 15 months worth of taxes were collected in one year, revenues from these taxes have fallen.

When this trend was compounded by the Reagan Administration's new business depreciation allowances, corporate taxability plunged. A number of large corporations pay virtually no corporate income taxes in Illinois. This declining business support, particularly in real dollars (adjusted for inflation) is one major factor in the financial constraints experienced by many local school districts. Attention to new cooperative ventures between businesses and schools cannot be in place of the more fundamental relationship of business support through taxation.

Background

At present, no state has a program as comprehensive as the one proposed by the Illinois Project for School Reform. For many years, however, the private sector and public schools have had cooperative programs. The National School Volunteer Program has organized school volunteers since 1956. The National Association for Industry-Education Cooperation helped bring industry and schools together in 1969 to improve the quality of education. Since the early 1980's, private-public collaborations grew tremendously. A number of factors contribute to this phenomenal growth.

The decrease in revenues for education from public sources in the last few years forced school districts to seek other sources of funding. Public funding for K-12 education fell from $87.4 billion in 1979 to $82.0 billion in 1982 (Action in the State, 1984). Federal aid for K-12 education declined each year since 1980. Public schools received $8.2 billion (9.3 percent of total revenues) from the federal government in 1979; but in 1984, they received $5.7 billion (6.4 percent of total revenues). Much of the federal contributions funded experimental or innovative programs and materials or equipment purchases.

Other factors encouraged the growth of private-public collaborations. While reducing federal funding for public education, President Reagan declared 1983-84 the National Year of Partnerships in Education. In 1982, the Education Commission of the States' Task Force on Education for Economic Growth brought together governors, legislators, and leaders from business, labor, science and education. The Task Force recommended that each corporate leader in the nation help improve schools and support public education. In August 1984, Congress passed the "Partnership in Education for Mathematics, Science and Engineering Act." One purpose of this act is to encourage partnerships in education between the business community and schools.

The Commission on Excellence in Education, on the other hand, remained almost silent on the subject of school-business relationships, preferring instead to emphasize the responsibility of public officials for improving academic performance. Chicago United's (1984) study of vocational education reflected a similar perspective. According to Education Week (Feb. 8, 1984), a major theme of business involvement in schools is to focus on a limited number of special projects that seek to change, rather than support, the existing system. According to a vice-president of Pillsbury, "The recent talk about business-school cooperation is simply another chapter in tinkering with schools." He claims that business devotes so few resources to schools that they should be highly targeted. A former Standard Oil Company (Ohio) executive showed that all of SOHIO's projects serve their own interests as well as those of schools. A Bank America Foundation executive warned that business should not be co-opted into thinking that they have a major role in financing and running schools.

These statements receive support from data on corporate giving. According to The Council on Financial Aid to Education (Educ. Week, Feb. 1, 1984), only 4 percent -- $52 million -- of the $1.3 billion given to education by corporations went to pre-collegiate education in 1982. If Illinois received five percent, the state received $2.6 million. About 56 percent of corporate aid to elementary and secondary education came through cash grants, 25 percent through matching grants, and 14 percent through equipment. Matching gifts were usually matched to employee contributions. Furthermore, about 60 percent of corporate contributions went to organizations and associations concerned with improving pre-college education, such as Junior Achievement, rather than being directed to schools. Half of the companies only matched gifts to private schools. When companies limited their support to specific areas, the most popular were economic education, math, science, and computer science. The Illinois Council on Economic Education located at Northern Illinois University, for example, is funded largely by corporate donations.

The ISBE's emphasis on regional coordination of training and employment programs partly reflects changes in current federal job training initiatives. The Job Training Partnership Act (JPTA), the replacement for the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA), focuses 70 percent on training, compared to 20 percent under CETA (Educ. Week, Jan. 23, 1985). JTPA emphasizes state control and greater private sector involvement through Private Industry Councils (PICs) and in Service Delivery Areas (SDAs) of at least 200,000 inhabitants. The ISBE also administers the High Impact

Training Services (HITS) for Economic Development program, funded at the $1.2 million level for 1984-85. HITS funds programs cooperatively designed by an educational institution and a designated industry, with the purpose of expanding or attracting new industry to Illinois.

Private Sector Contributions to Public Schools in Selected States

Compared to Illinois, the business communities in California, Massachusetts, Texas and Washington support public education more actively. Private-public cooperative programs may be generally classified under two broad categories, education foundations and school-business partnerships. While education foundations generally provide schools with financial support, business partnerships supply a variety of benefits from tutoring and job training to gifts of equipment and outright financial grants. Private-public collaborative programs are organized on local as well as state levels. Owing to the uniqueness of each program, the mechanics of these organizations are perhaps best seen through examples.

The San Francisco Education Fund, established in 1979 and funded by private sources at no cost to the district, selectively funds high-priority school programs for which federal or state funding is not available (San Francisco Education Fund, 1983). Over the last 4 years, the Fund paid more than $1.1 million to finance 400 school projects among the 106 public schools. The Chicago Board of Education provided operating funds for the Chicago Foundation for Public Education during 1983-84. The Foundation is designed to solicit funds from small businesses and professionals but has suspended operations for 1984-85.

Business partnership programs are usually more numerous than education foundations. Known by various names, such as "partnerships-in-education," "summer employment," and "job training," the most common of all is "adopt-a-school." In Dallas, approximately 1050 businesses adopted virtually all of the more than 200 public schools. Benefits include company tutors, job training programs, a variety of gifts including cash, and summer employment for teachers and students. Dallas estimates that for the 1983-84 school year, the value of cash contributions, materials and volunteer services exceeded $6 million. The school district incurred only administrative costs. Atlanta estimates the benefits of their school partnership program at $4 million.

In September 1982, the Boston Compact was formed with the goal of improving the quality of the city's public high schools. This Compact is an agreement between the schools, business, and universities in which each side pledges to achieve certain measurable goals. Schools try to produce higher achieving students and reduce dropout rates, while businesses provide support in various forms, including jobs for students and graduates. A total of 1,766 students were hired on the 1984 summer job program. A commercial bank in Boston donated $1.5 million to endow a plan for excellence which will give grants to teachers and projects with school-generated ideas. Another bank gave $300,000 to the schools to assist in the professional development of teachers. Computer companies offer schools help in the form of equipment and training. And the superintendent of the district announced that "students' attendance and motivation has been improved at the high school level by the very direct incentives to stay in school and perform well provided by the Boston Compact (Boston Private Industry Council, 1984). Once funded entirely by private foundation grants, the Boston School Department now contributes about $300,000 a year to the program.

Large city schools have continuously developed better relationships with business for several years. Chicago already has more than 200 adopted schools (Educ. USA, 1983). One national survey of 193 companies found that 30 percent participate in adopt-a-school programs (Educ. Week, Feb. 1, 1984). A survey by the council of the Great City Schools (1981), conducted in advance of the current reform movement, found that 23 of 28 districts had formal or informal agreements with the private sector. Six had structured agreements, twenty reported adopt-a-school efforts (but only seven were systemwide approaches), three claimed school outreach programs such as Chicago's Center for Urban Education, and four districts had executive loan arrangements. The Center for Urban Education was funded largely by the Spencer Foundation and the Chicago Community Trust, however, and brought business into the school primarily through a volunteer program. Numerous examples of "privatization" exist (e.g., management studies, accounting and personnel system revision, energy utilization, insurance consultation, budget control, etc.), sometimes paid on a contractual basis and sometimes donated by business.

At the state level, the West Virginia Education Fund established in July 1983, boasts of being the nation's first statewide education foundation. The Fund seeks "to employ private sector resources to encourage excellence and innovation in West Virginia public schools (West Virginia Education Fund, 1983). Created entirely through the efforts of the private sector and sustained by private funds, this organization awarded over $33,000 to 132 teachers in 1983-84 through a "mini-grant" program designed to support teachers' innovative ideas that benefit students for which no public funds were available. Another major program of the Fund already has resulted in the establishment of several school-business partnerships. Kentucky's state Foundation for Public Schools began with a single $25,000 grant. California's Educational Initiative Fund, the largest of its type in the country, awarded 71 grants last year, totaling $600,000.

The Industry Education Council of California (IECC), a non-profit organization with members from business, industry, labor, government and education, seeks to assist and improve career education and the education-to-work process. More than 1200 companies, 600 education leaders, 100 human resource agency representatives and 27 local communities are affiliated with the IECC. The statewide program links schools, the business world, resource coordinators and implementors for education-to-work activities. This program is organized at no cost to the state. Occasionally state departments of education have initiated school-business cooperation. In the fall of 1982, the Bureau of Student, Community and Adult Services in the Massachusetts Department of Education undertook a research project to collect information about school-business partnership activities in the state. The results of this study, published in a handbook titled "Creating School-Business Partnerships," helps local districts develop school-business partnerships. In the spring of 1984, the Massachusetts Department of Education co-sponsored five regional conferences for leaders in business and education with the purpose of increasing these leaders' awareness of business-education partnerships and to provide them with information on how to initiate, organize and sustain partnerships. The state incurs all costs for these programs.

Mention must be made of business roundtables, which are organizations consisting of the chief executive officers of many of the state's large corporations. The California Roundtable, consisting of 88 chief executive officers of California's major businesses, commissions education consultants to assess education issues in the state and to make recommendations for improvement. The California Roundtable was instrumental in the shaping and passage of the major reform legislation (SB 813) enacted in 1983 and continues to support and encourage legislation for the improvement of education.

The Washington Roundtable was formed in November, 1983 and subsequently produced a number of specific recommendations to the Washington legislature for the improvement of public education.

Chicago United, a consortium of leading Black, White, and Hispanic business executives, plays a role similar to these statewide roundtables in the City of Chicago. During the 1980 financial crisis, Chicago United assisted in reorganizing Chicago schools. In 1982 Chicago United launched the "Agenda for Public Education in Chicago" to secure the commitment of public officials and the public at large to improve the effectiveness of public schools. None of their recommendations (Chicago United, 1983) included school-business partnerships.

A Chicago United (1984) study of vocational education in Chicago called primarily for increased analytical and academic preparation of vocational education students. Instead of promoting equipment purchases and expanding the private sector experience of vocational education teachers, the report urged schools to utilize the resources of City Colleges, technical schools, business, and industry, and to discontinue programs without well-trained staff and up-to-date equipment. Chicago United's position reflects growing national criticism of vocational education (Educ. Week, Dec. 4, 1983; Nov. 28, 1984; Dec. 12, 1984; Educ. USA, Nov. 14, 1983). In contrast, Governor Thompson's proposal supports the traditional approach to vocational education by seeking to improve the training of personnel and equipment.

The review of business-school relationships outlined above, though by no means definitive, shows that none of the programs based the award of public funding on private sector donations. The Venture Capital Fund vaguely refers to state matching contributions for private sector donations. The Governor proposed specifically that the state match $1 of private funding with $9 of public funds for vocational education equipment purchases. This approach could lead to serious equity problems since the ability of districts to raise private sector contributions varies. Districts having the best relationship to the private sector, which probably have the best programs, would probably have the best access to private donations. Furthermore, business could control the distribution of $5 million in public funds by contributing only $500,000. Considerations of equity in Illinois vocational education have already been raised regarding the degree to which high tech programs may be available in rich school districts while poor districts have low tech or no tech programs (Lynn, Shade, and Hickrod, 1983).

Cost Estimates of Private-Public Collaborative Programs

Illinois clearly falls behind many states in private-public cooperative programs. Illinois has neither a business roundtable with the caliber of the California

Roundtable nor a State Department of Education as active as that of Massachusetts. No local partnership programs in Illinois can rival that of Atlanta, Dallas, Boston, or New Orleans. Illinois lacks such initiatives on the part of its business community, partly because many of the industries in Illinois are based on manufacturing and agriculture which were both adversely affected in the recent economic recession. Hence, it may be necessary for the public sector to take the initiative to promote programs, such as those suggested by the Illinois Project for School Reform.

The Illinois Project for School Reform in reference to school-business partnerships mentions that "some stimulus is needed to bring the two parties together, to provide some structure for meeting and agenda setting and to guarantee the follow-through which often makes the difference between good intentions and good working programs." This view is supported by Mann (1984), who made a study of private sector-public school interaction in 23 U.S. cities. He observed that "school leaders generally have not set up structures to promote and maintain the partnerships." He also observed that many of these partnerships were project-based, "brief and episodic; they seldom run long enough to make a long-term difference." Mann recommends that school districts establish structures to encourage and maintain partnerships.

The Illinois Project for School Reform proposes minimal funding for its recommendations of school-business partnerships through the Education Venture Capital Fund and the Illinois Privitization Act. It suggests that the Illinois State Board of Education reallocate currently budgeted funds for the creation of the proposed Education-Business Department. It is questionable if such an arrangement is feasible, especially since federal cutbacks substantially reduced the ISBE staff. State level private-public programs in other states typically occur through private sector foundations. The Boston Compact now gets $300,000 from the school budget. Chicago's adopt-a-school program costs about $125,000 in administrative costs alone.

We present the following cost estimates for consideration. All of the estimates assume that the basic vocational education structure remains unchanged. They do not consider either the added private-sector costs or potential cost savings through improved efficiency or the substitution of private contributions for tax dollars.

	Illinois	Chicago
1. Low Cost	0	0
2. Medium Cost	1,984,000	471,000
3. High Cost	$19,600,000	$4,837,500

Low Cost Plan. A no-cost plan to improve school/business relationships could include better regional coordination (assuming the costs of other governance structures could fall by the same amount), a state public education foundation created and administered within the private sector, and regional education-business councils entirely subsidized by private industry. Voluntary blue-ribbon panels, again subsidized by the private sector, could be appointed by the Governor to initiate these efforts.

Medium Cost Plan. The medium cost approach allocates $1,000,000 to an ISBE department for school-business relationships to add structure to state efforts in this area. Equipment purchase plans of $625,000 and summer internship programs costing $375,000 are based on the Governor's long-range plans to spend $1,000,000 annually for these programs. The Venture Capital Fund and the Privatization Project would get the $600,000 recommended by the Illinois Project for School Reform. ESR superintendents would receive an average of $5,000 for the regional education-business councils to offset initial clerical and administrative expenses.

High Cost Plan. This configuration boosts the state-level Education and Business Department to $250,000, a level comparable to the administrative costs of some large cities. Internship and equipment purchase funds would remain at the Governor's proposed 1985-86 level of $8 million on an annual basis rather than for a single year. While the Venture Capital Fund appropriations remain at $500,000, the Illinois Privatization Project would be funded at the $8 million level to stimulate school-business partnerships on an annual basis (averaging $8,000 per school district -- the proposed average for pilot programs). The 57 regional education-business councils would average $50,000 each for a director, secretary, and expenses.

18. Public Relations

Two themes cut across various proposals seeking to either enhance the public image of education, to influence public relations, and to improve parent-school relations. First, the Illinois Project for School Reform wants a statewide public relations campaign titled "Everyone has a Stake in Public Education." More specifically, the Illinois Commission and the ISBE propose a campaign to recruit talented teachers, or to emphasize the indispensable role of teachers. A second common theme focuses on reporting student achievement testing results in the community -- proposed by the Illinois Project, the Illinois Commission, the ISBE, and the Governor. Though posing a public relations nightmare in many districts --the intended objective of Governor Thompson's proposal-- one outcome of this effort could be to open communications and ultimately improve the relationship between schools, parents, and the community.

Except for a number of proposals offered by the Illinois Project for School Reform, few other public image reform proposals exist.One reason is that community relations and participation are uniquely local matters. "The State perhaps can do more by doing less, "claims Harold Seamon, executive director of the Illinois School Board Association. (Quincy Hearld Whig, Oct. 10, 1983,). "We are not going to achieve excellence in education unless we have a movement in the local schools. The CTU wants parents or guardians to visit the school at least once a year, but the recommendation extends itself as a parent responsibility rather than as a community relations effort. Under the proposal, for example, the school district would have the right to initiate legal proceedings against parents. The Illinois Commission's only other proposal in this area aims at administrators who would be required to, "demonstrate an understanding of the knowledge called for in establishing productive parent-school relations and of the procedures fostering the involvement such relationships demand" as a prerequisite to administrative certification.

In many ways, the Illinois Project for Education Reform's chapter titled, "Reconnecting People to Their Schools," provides the unique contribution of their reform efforts. The Illinois State Board of Education would require local districts to adopt outreach plans to "win" the support of taxpayers without children in school. They also recommend that the Illinois Association of School Administrators develop a model policy statement for community use of school facilities.

For fostering personal contact with the community, the Project suggested:

-- Student community service requirements as part of their curriculum
-- Teacher development and supervision of community outreach programs
-- A community resource bank located in the schools that would maintain an inventory of individuals with special skills, experiences, talents, and knowledge

- -- Encourage business to voluntarily provide paid release time to allow individuals to attend to school business
- -- Initiate parent-teacher-student learning contracts
- -- Create an Education Bank for Illinois. Under this proposal, 2.5 percent of local property taxes paid for public education would be placed in an Individual Education Training Account (IETA) to be used for that person's education or training at any Illinois accredited institution. The amount in the ITEA would be matched by the Education Bank and could easily be used by the taxpayer's children for higher education.

Except for the Education Bank, outreach plan requirements, and student community service requirements, all of the proposals can already be implemented at the local level.

Chicago's proposed long-range plan (Design for Excellence, 1984) contained an entire chapter on "The Schools and the Community." Few of the proposals -- such as using buildings outside of school hours, assigning a community relations director to every district, and funding ombudsmen to help parents and citizens to find their way in the bureaucracy -- require new state law. A number of proposals address information and communications including an active program of agressive information dissemination to combat the poor image created by teh media's coverage of dramatic events. The Citizens Schools Committee (1982) recommended the most wide-reaching information proposals. Parents would receive detailed informations packets, principals would have to prpare a school report card type of report (including student testing data), and the number of system-wide annual reports would increase. Access of central data processing by parents and citizens would improve dramatically.

The recommendations of Chicago United's Agenda for Public Education (1983) overlap with Chicago's proposed long-range plan including increased parent-teacher communication, expanded community use of school buildings, and providing usable and understandable information for the public. Chicago United also recommends increasing parental access to information, training leaders and administrators in public relations, developing and strengthening local school organizations (composed of parents and community leaders), and training for school advisory council members. The latter two proposals relate directly to the proposed role of School Building Councils in the Designs for Change "Urban School Improvement Act," and the role of school building councils in general.

Background

Public relations already plays a role in school affairs. The National School Public Relations Association represents

1,600 public information officers nationwide. Many suburban districts in Illinois employ a full-time public relations or community affairs person. Chicago's Office of Communications employs six individuals at a cost of about $230,000. During the 1984 teachers strike, several thousand dollars were spent on an outside public relations firm.

The educational reform movement itself provides one stimulus for increased interest in public relations. As one board of education member in Urbana claimed, "We know the report (by the National Commission on Excellence in Education) is garbage in relation to District 116. But we know a lot of people translate those reports to what is happening at local schools." A second factor is the declining proportion of parents. The Illinois Project for School Reform estimated the number of citizens without children in the public schools at 78 percent. The Census Bureau figures that 72 percent of adults over age 18 have no children in the public schools in the United States (Educ. Week, Oct. 10, 1984). Whatever the figure, the proportion of parents will likely rise as the baby boom generation's offspring enter school. Interest in improving relationships to nonparents also intensified as referendum passage rates slid from well over a 50 percent success rate in the 1960s, to less than a third by the late 1970s (Guthrie, Garms, and Pierce, 1978).

Marketing campaigns based on slogans like the one suggested by the Illinois Project (though the double meaning of "stake" in "Everyone Has a Stake in Public Education," would require a slogan change) occur around the nation. New York City launched a privately funded, $90,000 marketing campaign titled, "Go Public." The campaign featured full-page advertisements in major newspapers, video tape performances in department stores, and posters on public transit buses (Educ. Week, Oct. 10, 1984). In California, Safeway Stores Inc. helped underwrite a statewide public relations campaign. On a national basis, the National Association of Secondary School Principals sent its 30,000 members a kit of pamphlets, posters, bumper stickers, decals, and T-shirt order forms on the theme, "Education . . . a Sound Investment in America."

An Illinois Project background paper insisted that public relations is no longer a luxury budget item, but a necessity (Education As a Public Good: Reconnecting People to Their Schools, 1984). These public relations events tend not to add substantially to education budgets (the Illinois Project for School Reform wants the ISBE to reallocate funds to plan such a campaign). The corporate sector plays a major financial role. In New York, 2[illegible] corporate sponsors contributed to their program.

Another important theme is "information." Houston has a cable television station, a graphics and printing department, and 16 telephone lines to handle inquiries and comments from the public (Educ. Week, Oct. 10, 1984). The Illinois Project for School Reform's working paper, titled Education as a Public Good: Reconnecting People to Their Schools, also suggested a parent hotline to cut through "layered school systems" -- but the hotline would be a toll free number to the State Office of Education. Los Angeles doubled its output of news releases to the local press. These efforts are similar to Chicago's Design for Excellence proposals for an aggressive information dissemination campaign and ombudsman services. Perhaps the most significant reform in the information area has already occurred in Illinois. In 1983, Illinois became the second to the last state in the U.S. to adopt a freedom of information act for public agencies. The long delay in implementing such legislation indicates the traditional attitude towards the public distribution of information in Illinois.

Along with computer courses, credit for the community service work of students caught the imagination of many who seek reform of the school curriculum. Ernest Boyer's High School: A Report on Secondary Education in America, funded by the Carnegie Corporation, recommended one and one-half years for community service. The Illinois Project for school reform recommends a year in the public relations part of the report, but only a semester in the curriculum section. The Gallup Poll of public attitudes toward public education found 70 percent public approval for awarding course credit to juniors and seniors for community service such as work in hospitals, recreation centers, or parks. In 1978, the suggestion elicited an 87 percent approval rating. In Maryland, the state superintendent of schools strongly backed a community service requirement, but backed off the proposal partly because of logistics and cost (Educ. Week, May 2, 1984). Parental support tended to be high, but some argued that public service must come from the heart, not be required for school attendance.

Though the Illinois project raised the issue of expanded use of school facilities by the community as a way to gain support from nonparents, evidence of a "problem" was absent. In fact, reducing public access to school facilities, based on financial stringency, seems to be a more commonly employed referendum strategy. In many rural communities, schools still function as the heart of the community, thus providing resistance to consolidation. In Chicago, city colleges widely utilize many high school facilities primarily to provide evening high schoo programs and General Education Diploma (G.E.D.) preparation. Athletic facilities receive extensive community use, and many communities exercise strong "ownership" over their schools. The Chicago school system even supports its own system of playgrounds open after school hours. The Chicago Panel on Public School Finances, however, found that, "Playground programs provide fewer services, at higher cost, than comparably sized Park District programs (Recreational Programs in a Time of Fiscal Restraint, 1985). On the other hand, many schools in Chicago are locked up after 3:30 p.m. for security and safety reasons.

Originally, the Illinois Education Bank proposal aimed at the difficulty of passing local referenda by offering nonparents a direct personal financial incentive to raise property taxes for elementary and secondary schools. In the final report, help towards retraining the adult labor force in a changing economy provided another important arguement. In some ways, the idea resembles proposals to give all young adults vouchers worth at least two years of postsecondary educations, that could be cashed in at any time during their life (Guthrie, Garms, Pierce, 1978).

Numerous practical, legal, and financial problems arise from the proposal that focus on eligibility of renters -- who also pay property taxes through their rent -- the drop in school revenues, financing of the matching provision, utilization by qualified taxpayers, and so forth. Even if worked out, the Bank may not be effective in accomplishing the alleged purpose. Citizens, not taxpayers, vote. The elderly, who are least likely to utilize the bank, are most likely to vote. Single people tend not to own real estate and are more mobile. More people may well appreciate lower taxes than an Education Bank.

Existing Cost Estimates

The Illinois Project for School Reform, without elaborating, estimates the cost of the Illinois Education Bank at $60 million. The Illinois Commission estimates the cost of reporting student assessment data to the public at $1.60 per student, while the Governor would let local districts absorb the cost of a school report card. The Illinois Project wanted the ISBE to plan a statewide public relations campaign and to finance the campaign from an internal reallocation of resources. Since nonpublic financing characterizes most of these kinds of campaigns, the small public investment for planning may be accurate. The well-known New York campaign cost at least $90,000, but corporate-in-kind donations would make the figure much higher. Logically, the cost of community service requirements would probably be much higher than a regular class because of the need for more individual supervision.

Reform Cost Estimates

Costs are difficult to estimate because some reforms represent suggestions to local schools, some rely on the response of the private sector, and some lack details about implementation. Furthermore, schools already deal extensively with public relations (e.g., newsletters, news releases, facility use, referendum campaigns, etc.). Like staff development, however, budgeting procedures obscure these expenditures. The following estimates assume that implementation of many reform suggestions, such as community use of buildings, community resource banks, paid release time for private employers, and parent-teacher-student learning contracts are matters of local implementation.

	Illinois	Chicago
Low Cost	$ 40,000	---
Medium Cost (Community Service)	18,450,000	$4,049,133
High Cost (Illinois Project)	43,405,000	$9,409,000

Low Cost. This configuration assumes that the costs of a state requirement to develop a public relations plan at the local level can be met through the "local committee structure" at no new cost. The $40,000 pays for one full-time ISBE employee or consultant to organize a statewide public relations campaign funded by private parties or corporations.

Medium Cost Community Service Requirement)
Little is known about the practicalities of placement and supervision for community service requirements. Perhaps the closest component of the curriculum is "cooperative education" in the vocational education curriculum defined in the Resource Cost Model as, "Education through written cooperative arrangements between the school and employers, . . . by alternation of study in school and job training in an occupational field. These two experiences must be planned and supervised by the school and employers." The RCM cost estimates included a full-time teacher for every 40 students. For career education, a load of 60 students might be more appropriate, since cooperative education is a little more involved. A caseload of 60 students generates costs of about $105 per pupil in excess of the typical high school class ($250). Updating the $105 difference to reflect 1985-86 costs and applying the update to an average sophomore class size of 140,000 students statewide, yields $18,405,000. Chicago's share assumes that 20% of the students completing the community service requirement enroll in Chicago Public Schools.

High Cost (Illinois Project). In addition to the elements of the low cost configuration, the estimates consider the community education requirement and the Illinois Education Bank.

The Education Bank calculations need several additional assumptions to cost out the vague proposal. First, the calculations assumed that only half of those required to contribute to the Bank would actually qualify for, and seek, withdrawals, and that they would withdraw all of their contributions. Second, it was assumed that the matching provision would be paid for from the unused contributions to the Bank. Thus all contributions would be either withdrawn or used for matching provisions. Local property taxes pay for about $3 billion of public elementary and secondary education in Illinois. Even though 2.5 percent of this collection totals $75 million, only about half is residential property and only about two thirds of residential property is owner occupied. Thus, the Bank would collect about $25 million a year. Calculations for Chicago are based on $600 million per year in real estate tax collections (1984-85 local property tax collections totaled $538 million) with all other assumptions the same.

IV. COST CALCULATION METHODOLOGY

IV. Cost Calculation Methodology

This chapter describes some of the specific assumptions that undergird many cost calculations throughout the report. Some of the specific data supporting the more "rounded" projections of enrollment, staff counts, and personnel costs are presented. The utilization of the Resource Cost Model is outlined.

Basic Strategies

Full Implementation Approach. In order to simplify the presentation and improve the clarity of cost estimates, most calculations represent full implementation costs standardized to the 1985-86 school year. One major exception is the proposal to raise minimum starting salaries to $20,000 by 1987-88, in which we use 1987-88 as the full implementation year. In some instances, such as preschool and kindergarten proposals, full implementation may take up to 10 years or until newly-hired personnel can be hired and reach the average experience level of the teaching force.

A few of the proposals present difficulties for the full implementation approach to costing the reforms. Some pilot program proposals, especially in the Governor's package, contain a suggested appropriation but no indication about the number of pilot programs. Appropriations within the Governor's proposal often vary from year to year with no explanation. Many reforms also have a one-time cost for items like test development or equipment purchases. Specific assumptions about pilot programs, one-time costs, and appropriation levels are noted in the text.

Reform Arenas Treated Independently. Cost estimates are calculated as if no other reform were simultaneously enacted. This assumption tends to underestimate costs. Increasing compensation for teachers, for example, would drive up the cost of most other reforms. Many reforms also imply substantial increases in the number of education professionals, thus implying more hiring of new graduates and reentering personnel. Consequently, the costs of staff development, personnel evaluation, and other related reform efforts would change. In the final report of this study, some cost estimates will allow for an estimate of how the implementation of one reform would affect the implementation and cost of other reforms.

Projected Cost Increases. Except as noted, projected cost increases for 1985-86 usually assume a 5 percent annual growth rate from the most current published figures. Trends presented in the personnel compensation section of this study help validate this assumption. When only a statewide average (including Chicago) cost figure exists, Chicago costs are assumed to be 10 percent greater than the state average. Chicago teacher salaries in 1984-85 are about 10 percent greater than the state average (including Chicago). Published Resource Cost Model (RCM) cost estimates, based on 1981-82 resource prices, are assumed to be 26 percent greater for 1985-86, and Chicago prices were set at 10 percent greater than this amount.

Personnel Cost Assumptions

Use of Average Teacher Costs. Almost all of the calculations using teacher costs utilize the salary and benefits of the average teacher rather than the beginning teacher's salary and benefits. The major reason is to reflect full implementation costs. Furthermore, more experienced teachers are hired to fill openings than newly trained teachers, though the number of years of experience is probably less than average.

Chicago Teachers Cost. The 1984-85 average salary is $28,137. If this figure grows by 5 percent, it will grow to $29,544. In 1982-83, benefits including state-funded retirement contributions were 35.7 percent of salaries according to figures of the Chicago Board of Education (Department of Financial Planning and Budgeting, Dec. 30, 1982). Applying this percentage to $29,544 yields Chicago teacher costs of $40,091. In most sections of this report, $40,000 is used.

Statewide Average Teacher Costs. The average statewide salary in 1984-85 was $25,129, and a 5 percent increase for 1985-86 yields $26,451. If benefits averaged 25 percent including state contributions to retirement, total teacher cost rises to $33,064. In most sections of this report, $33,000 is utilized. The 25 percent benefit assumption is arbitrary since no reliable measurement exists.

Value of Teachers' and Principals' Time. Some calculations require an estimate of the value of teachers' time. Though teachers have an official work week of 30-35 hours, survey data indicates that teachers work about 44 hours a week when after hour duties, preparation time, and grading are included. We use the 44 hour figure as the base for an hourly wage. For principals, we use an arbitrarily chosen 50 hour work week to reflect the longer hours principals tend to work. The hourly costs for personnel apply to salaries and retirement benefits (assumed to be $38,000 for teachers in Chicago, and $31,000 statewide), but not to the benefits not generated by salary levels.

Staff Counts and Student Enrollment

Staff Counts. The ISBE reported the following full-time equivalent staff counts in 1982-83:

Pre-Kindergarten Teachers	262
Kindergarten Teachers	2,950
Elementary Teachers	54,720
Secondary Teachers	30,831
Special Education Teachers	15,429
Certificated Administrative	1,875
Principals/Assistant Principals	4,241
Other Certificated (Pupil personnel Deans, Supervisors)	10,974
Total Certificated	121,282
Total Non-Certificated	60,191
Total Staff	181,474

Since the decade-long enrollment decline has leveled off, these staff counts are used as the basis for the cost calculations, though there is usually some rounding (e.g., 105,000 classroom teachers, 6,000 administrators, 11,000 non-classroom certificated personnel). In Chicago, figures of 20,000 classroom teachers, about 2,000 administrators, and 2,000 certificated personnel serving in a pupil personnel capacity are utilized.

New and Reentering Teachers. Some reform cost estimates use the following assumptions about new and reentering teachers:

New Teachers, Statewide	1,735
New Teachers, Chicago	350
Reentering Teachers, Statewide	3,156
Reentering Teachers, Chicago	630

These figures represent 1.7 percent of classroom teachers either statewide or in Chicago. In Chicago, the hiring of newly trained teachers varies considerably. In 1983-84, the number was 246, but in 1984-85, the number was 355 -- closely matching the state average percentage. Reentering teachers describes a broad category of teachers. In 1983-84, 176 were reappointed, 304 represented maternity reinstatements, 102 came back from extended maternity leave, and 895 were reinstated after illness. Many reinstatements involved only short leaving times.

Student Enrollment. Specific enrollment assumptions are usually stated in the particular cost estimate section. In general, the following 1983-84 enrollment data provide the basis for broader assumptions about enrollment:

	Grade	Enrollment
Elementary	Pre-K	12,694
	Pre-K Bilingual	627
	Pre-K Special Ed.	8,039
	K	132,221
	1	141,580
	2	127,014
	3	126,439
	4	124,657
	5	126,273
	6	131,818
	7	141,881
	8	143,743
	Special Ed.	44,535
	Ungraded	10,004
	Total	1,271,525
Secondary	Grade	Enrollment
	9	149,203
	10	141,254
	11	132,219
	12	124,693
	Special Ed.	27,826
	Ungraded	2,325
	Post Grad.	4,271
	Total	581,791
	Total Enrollment	1,853,316

Source: Illinois State Board of Education

Chicago enrollment of 420,000 students is assumed with high school students comprising 30 percent of this number.

Some of the reform cost estimates would change as enrollment patterns change. High school enrollments will remain smaller for the next 4 or 5 years, while elementary enrollments might continue to grow over the next decade.

Resource Cost Model

Several sections of this report rely on the published program configurations and/or cost calculations of the Resource Cost Model, developed for the Illinois State Board of Education (Chambers and Parrish, 1982). Typically, the published cost estimates for "target size" program configurations were roughly updated to reflect 1985-86 resource prices and applied to statewide or Chicago enrollment figures. Resource costs in Chicago were assumed to be 10 percent higher. Given sufficient time, resources, and access to the computerized RCM maintained by the Illinois State Board of Education, many reform costs could be accurately predicted for individual districts.

The Resource Cost Model (RCM) originates in the "best practice," "exemplary program," or "reputational survey" approaches to cost estimation. The RCM utilizes experts to construct programs as they might exist. The RCM was developed at the Institute for Research on Educational Finance and Governance at Stanford University, funded by the National Institute of Education. Kakalik (1977) and Hartman (1981) employed frameworks similar to the RCM to assess the cost of implementing P.L. 94-142. The RCM in Illinois contains configurations for: 1) instructional programs, 2) school administration support, and 3) district administration and support services. In most instances, proposed educational reforms would affect the distribution of student enrollment among instructional programs, rather than school and district support, though some exceptions exist.

Instructional Programs. Committees decided resource needs for eight categories: elementary, secondary, special, gifted, vocational, compensatory, limited-English-proficient (LEP), and adult education. Members of the committees were chosen for their program experience and/or the constituency they represented. Together, the eight program category committees created 160 instructional programs. For each instructional program, the relevant program committee determined: 1) target, minimum and maximum class size or caseloads, 2) FTE personnel requirements, 3) purchased services, 4) supplies, 5) special equipment, and 6) building space needs. These determinations reflect "appropriate" resource needs, not "minimal," "basic," or "equitable" resource requirements. Cost estimates of "appropriate" resource needs tended to match the average of existing costs.

School Administration and Support Services. A committee also established the "appropriate" staffing and resource needs for schools as a function of school size. Based on state average prices in 1981-82, a minimum size elementary school of 200 students costs $538 per student for school administration and support services (Chambers and Parrish, 1982, p. 99). Costs for target size elementary schools of 400 students drops to $424 per pupil, and the maximum size school of 700 students incurs only a $342 cost per pupil.

District Administration and Support Services. Again, enrollment drives resource utilization, and costs decline continuously with size. The committee decided that a district achieves most economies of scale with an enrollment of about 1,000 students and exhausts almost all economies of scale with a 6,500 student enrollment. Taken together, general district administration costs about $263 per pupil for 650 students, based on State average resource costs (Chambers and Parrish, 1982, p. 99). A 6,500 student district costs $148 per pupil for district administration, and for a 19,000 district the figure falls to only $140.

APPENDICES

Reference Notes
List of References

Matrix of Major Reform Proposals

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APPENDIX

COMPARISON OF MAJOR EDUCATIONAL REFORM PROPOSALS

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List of Abbreviations

IHE	Institution of Higher Education
LEA:	Local Education Agency or school district
ISBE:	Illinois State Board of Education
ESR:	Educational Service Region
Bakalis:	Illinois Project for School Reform
Berman/Mulcahey:	Illinois Commission on the Improvement of Elementary and Secondary Education
IBSP	Illinois Better Schools Program

CURRICULUM, ACADEMIC STANDARDS AND TESTING

CURRENT		BAKALIS		BERMAN/MULCAHEY
		LEAs choose A,B, or C:		
Mathematics	2.0 units	A. CORE TRACK:		
Science	1.0 units	English	4.0 units	
Foreign Language	1.0 units	Foreign	2.0 units	
Art, Music, or Voc Ed	2.0 units	Mathematics	2.0 units	
Social Science		Computers	.5 units	
Language Arts	3.0 units	Science	2.0 units	
Health (alcohol,tobacco,	.5 unit JH/	Hist & Civics	3.0 units	
drugs)	.5 unit HS	Art & Music	2.0 units	
Career Ed	optimal time allotment	Seminar on work	.5 units	Define primary purpose of schooling
		Community Service	.5 units	
Safety Ed	30 hr HS			
Consumer Ed	9 weeks	B. COMPETENCIES TRACK: Outcome plans designed to measure student competencies		Establish learning expectations; require objective, local assessment systems; requires testing at 3rd, 6th, 8th, and 10th grade levels; dissseminate outcomes to public and state
Other discrete requirements: History of U.S. U.S. Constitution State Constitution Contribution to minorities Government Patriotic exercises Citizenship;patriotism Etiquette of flag Voting, electoral procedure Respect for law Conservation of resources Free enterprise/dignity of work Humane treatment of animals Truth, honesty, morality Metric education		C. INTEGRATED CURRICULUM/ THEMES TRACK LEA developed cross-disciplinary themes such as the Paidea Proposal		Implies standarized testing
		All districts submit Individual Curriculum Plans to state; Report rseults of tests at 3rd, 6th, 8th and 10th grade levels to community and state		
		Disapproves of social promotion		Student promotion: — retained if one year below grade level — cannot be retained more than on year successively — teacher judgement over-rides retention if not more than 1.5 years below grade level — remedial services must be provided to retained students
		Create statewide "Academic Olympics"		
		Award some state college scholarships for academic achievement		
				Recognize effective schools
				Pilot programs to enhance self-concept (self-discipline, self-esteem) to prevent future need for remediation

CURRICULUM, ACADEMIC STANDARDS AND TESTING

ILLINOIS STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION	CTU	GOVERNOR
	LEAs have authority over curriculum, teaching methods, textbooks and reading programs	
	Music, art and foreign language available at elementary level	
Replace current course requirements with broadly defined outcome statements	LEAs mandated to provide programs to encourage reading	Accountablity measures lead instructional program
State establishes learning expectations; allow LEAs to organized their instructional program; measure outcomes locally, disseminate to public and state	Similar to Berman/Mulcahey aproach to assessment and reporting of results	Require standardized achievement testing at 3rd, 6th, 8th and 10th grade levels; use school district report card" to make comparisons
Emphasises locally selected criterian referenced and norm referenced tests		
		Math - Science initiative: - $500,000 planing grant for math and science academy - $20 million for math/science equipment program
	Teacher eveluation must be considered for students not performing at an "appropriate" level in promotion decisions	Pupil achieving one year below grade level retained no more than one year
	Provide remedial services for students performing below proficiency levels	Reading initiative: - Grant to IHES for reading programs - $30 million to fund reading specialists would be distributed through Chapter II (70% enrollment and 3.7% poverty counts) - 3.5 million for vouchers for inservice training related to reading
		Pilot programs to inhance self-image

CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION MANDATES

CURRENT		BAKALIS	BERMAN/MULCAHEY
Physical Education (daily instruction)	4.0 units	All existing mandates but special education eliminated, presumably including physical education drivers education, bilingual education and other discrete requirements except as noted below	Full funding of state requirements not part of the "primary purpose" of schooling Waivers in grades 11-12 for: — Academic classes for college enrollment — Remediation — Participation in athletic programs
Drivers Education	.5 units		Allow contracts for behind the wheel instruction and allow fees for this instruction (except for needy)
Districts with more than 20 students of a single language at one attendance center provide transitional bilingual education at the attendance center; some native language instruction required			

CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION MANDATES

ILLINOIS STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION	CTU	GOVERNOR
Require Physical Education only through grade 10; not necessarily daily		
Revise driver education requirements: — Make it an elective — Fund it all or partly through fees — Contract for instruction — Let 16-18 year olds get license without school program		
Provide services for all students with limited English proficiency consistent with their needs; current mandate remains effective in Chicago		

INSTRUCTIONAL DELIVERY

CURRENT	BAKALIS	BERMAN/MULCAHEY
About 1,000 districts — 500 unit — 400 elementary — 100 high school — Dual districts concentrated in Chicago area	Eliminate dual district organization; but allow waivers, consider dividing largest LEAs	Review LEA size based on academic achievement Evaluate relationship between ISBE, Board of Higher Education and Community College Board
Proficiency exams already permitted	Award credit for academically rigorous proficiency examinations	Encourage selective use of proficiency tests to allow students to take more challanging courses,not as a basis for early graduation
ISBE regulates certification, but Board of Education regulates teacher training institutions		
5 hour minimum school day, 176 days of pupil instruction, of which some are half days	Allow districts to operate Individual Educational Delivery Plans (IEDPs) for alteration of school day/week/year	Require the study of lenghtened school year and school day by LEAs; limit extracurricular interference; emphasize better year/day management
Compulsory attendance from age 7 to 16	Through ESRs develop plan for Before and After School Centers that charge tuition	Encourage LEA evaluation of kindergarten readiness; must be 5 by Sept 1 for kindergarten Encourage and reimburse full-day kindergarten Encourage local districts to assess preschool population and provide appropriate programs

INSTRUCTIONAL DELIVERY

Illinois State Board of Education ISBE	CTU	GOVERNOR
LEA reorganization (funded at $60,000 level)		Allow consolidating elementary and HS LEAs to use sum, (or combination) of existing district permissive tax rates, not the highest existing tax rate of any district
	Only use proficiency exams to qualify for advanced courses; not as a basis for graduation	Provide state funds for local LEAs to hire third party consultants for consolidation studies
Extend minimum school day from 5 to 7 hours with 5 hours reserved for academic instruction	Require LEAs to study lengthened school day and year	
Change compulsory attendance from 16 to age 18	Change compulsory attendance from age 7 to age 5, by Sept.1	
	Reimburse full-day kindergarten	Encourage and reimburse full-day kindergarten
Fund pilot programs to serve handicapped children age 0-3	Similar to Berman/Mulcahey proposal on preschool	$13 million to fund prototype early education learning centers in public,not-for-profit, and university sector
Lengthen school year to allow 5 additional half days for staff development		

Instructional Delivery: Innovation, Dropouts, Discipline

CURRENT	BAKALIS	BERMAN/MULCAHEY
Truants Alternative program funded by state at $1 million		Allow dropouts 16-18 to get GED
Dropouts may enroll in adult education and get GED at age 18	Illinois Education Venture Capital Fund for innovative and creative approaches to educational delivery	Require each LEA to provide programs for potential dropouts
	Governors Education Coordinating Council	Require LEAs to expand options for students with "chronic adjustment problems", such as community college courses
	Reduce size of State Board of Education from 17 to 9 members	
	Eight regional planning Councils to help create university/school district consortia	
	Educational Privatization Project would provide funding to help public schools turn functions over to the private sector	
	Local school building councils in larger, urban school districts	
	Education/Business Planning Councils in each ESR	
	Compacts with business community	

Instructional Delivery: Innovation, Dropouts, Discipline

ILLINOIS STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION	CTU	GOVERNOR
Expand existing regionally-based truancy prevention diagnosis and remediation services; fund at 2.6 million level	Opposes use of proficiency exams as a substitute for course work or basis for graduation	ISBE assistance for districts with high dropout rates
		Establish 60 alternative schools for students with serious discipline problems operated by ESRs
Make optional programs available to 16-18 year olds with parents' concurrence	Require LEAs to provide programs for potential dropouts	Establish regional Prevention Advisory Councils (PACs) in the 57 ESRs to prevent substance abuse
	Require LEAs to maintain records of requests for placement of students with chronic behavior problems; state will audit records	
	Assign financial responsibility to parents for student vandalism	
	Uniform discipline codes	Require districts to develop a discipline code
	Master teachers help teachers with discipline techniques	
	State guidelines for teacher/administrator and education/noneducation personnel	
	Class size maximums: K-8: 15 students H.S.: 20 students	
		39 new persons in Gang Crimes Unit

TEACHER TRAINING AND CERTIFICATION

CURRENT	BAKALIS	BERMAN/MULCAHEY
No exams for admission, exit or certification except Chicago, which requires a written exam	Raise training standards — ACT of 19 — Communications skills test prepared by ISBE — GPA of 2.8 (C+) by junior year — Passing grade on student teaching — Full year intership "mentor" before certification	Raise training standards — Minimum basic skills to enter teacher training at sophomore or junior levels — Rigorous training in science, math, reading for elementary majors
Elementary — General Electives 26 hrs. — General Ed. 78 hrs. (including 7 hrs. of science and 5 hrs. of math) — Professional Ed. 16 hrs (including 5 hrs. student teaching and 100 clock hours of prestudent teaching, 2 hours of reading)	State assumes duties of Chicago's Board of Examiners	Examination by external agency for certification (and perhaps degree)
Secondary — Major field requirements — 16 hrs. of professional education (see above)	Flexibility for experienced workers in certification process Business talent in schools program	
Separate certificates for early childhood, special education, and bilingual education		
Training institutions are stringently reviewed by the Illinois Board of Higher Education, and the teacher certification board of the ISBE		

TEACHER TRAINING AND CERTIFICATION

ILLINOIS STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION	CTU	GOVERNOR
More rigorous and uniform standards for admission and retention	Establish minimum basic skills to enter teacher training	
Annually assess quality of new candidates for certification		
	Written exam for certification	"Bar Exam" for teachers administered by Teacher Certification Board
State assumes duties of Chicago's Board of Examiners	Single statewide certification agency for teachers and principals; Chicago equivalents recognized by state	
	ISBE and training institutions improve classroom management curriculum	

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TEACHER COMPENSATION AND RECRUITMENT

CURRENT	BAKALIS	BERMAN/MULCAHY
	Fund five $25,000 grants for Model Career ladder pilot districts	Encourage districts to provide a wider array of roles within teaching
State minimum salary is $10,000; $11,000 with masters degree	Quality Education Compensation Act — Minimum salary of $16,000	Increase beginning teacher salaries from $10,000 to $20,000 by 1987-88
	Experienced teachers move to 12 month year with proportional salary increase	
Limited to math and science - current program provides about 70, $1000 scholarships limited to retraining teachers		Launch publicity campaign to recruit talented teachers — men (women) into female (male) oriented curriculums — minorities
		Scholarship program in shortage areas — Teach at least 3 years — Tuition and fees only — Experienced teachers eligible
	Merit school program. Cash grants from private sector distributed to personnel in outstanding schools	Encourage districts to recognize outstanding performance of teachers

TEACHER COMPENSATION AND RECRUITMENT

ILLINOIS STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION	CTU	GOVERNOR
	Career compensation ladder plans implemented at local level; must include measurable and fair evaluation and 12 month employment opportunity	Career ladder advancement based on performance; extended contracts for some teachers and rewards for special assignments/responsiblities
Raise beginning salary to $20,000 by 1987-88; maintain salary differentials based on experience and education	$19,500 minimum by 1987-1988 State assumes primary responsibility for developing revenue sources	Three-part performance program for salary improvement - $10.4 million for districts with salaries less than $15,000 - Planning grants for performance-based system for all districts which must involve a career ladder linking teacher performance to student achievement, teacher evaluation plans, staff development,etc.
Information campaign to emphasize indispensable role of teachers and attract minorities	Paid internships for brightest students	
Expand existing scholarship program to 100 scholarships — Encompass all areas of shortage — Include private colleges — 30% to prospective teachers	Endorses Berman/Mulcahey scholarship program Two-year scholarships for brightest students entering teaching	
		Recognize outstanding teaching

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PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR TEACHERS

CURRENT	BAKALIS	BERMAN/MULCAHEY
Most staff development is — academic study — institutes and workshops	Professional Development Planning Councils (PDPC) at ESR level	
		Require individual continuing professional education but not necessarily to maintain certificate
	Promote business-sponsored summer institutes and internships	
	Illinois Educational Leadership Academy	
Districts may use 5 half days of the 176 student attendance days for inservice or parent-teacher conferences		Require state-subsidized staff development programs in all school districts based on specific outcome goals
ESRs arrange for up to 4 days of inservice		
		Require inservice/support when transferring teachers to new grade levels or subject areas
Annual certificate fees of $4.00 retained by ESRs for staff development purposes and certification administration		

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PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR TEACHERS

ILLINOIS STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION	CTU	GOVERNOR
Require successful completion of district staff development programs to renew certificate		Continuing education requirements for all teachers on an annual basis as part of district performance pay program
Promote involvement of business and industry in staff development		Summer fellowships for voc-ed teachers in industry
Require 3-year staff development plan at LEA level		Build on regional state-funded gifted centers and computer consorting to establish regional teacher centers: - Staff development - Math-Science resource center - Reading resource center - Computer eduication center - Gifted education center
Lengthen school year and allow districts to count 5 additional half days of staff development as school days		
Include plans for beginning and re-entering professionals	Local/state tuition assistance for teacher retraining and continuing education for paraprofessionals	
Increase certificate registration fees to provide additional funds		
Require public universities to assist LEAs in staff development		

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EVALUATION OF PERSONNEL

CURRENT	BAKALIS	BERMAN/MULCAHEY
After two years, teachers can only be fired for substantive reasons proved to an impartial hearing officer		Create and use a permanent three-person teacher dismissal board to review charges
		Do not allow "nonprejudicial error" as a basis for reinstating dismissed teachers
	Require local school districts to adopt personnel evaluation plans developed partly by teacher, administrators, and the school board: Endorces Toledo Plan	Require LEAs to develop evaluative procedures; at least two formal assessments per year for certified teachers
		Program to train administrators to evaluate personnel effectively including documentation and remediation
		The ISBE will develop public awareness of retention and evaluation issues

EVALUATION OF PERSONNEL

ILLINOIS STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION	CTU	GOVERNOR
	Require peer review for tenure	
Require LEAs to devise written plan for evaluating all personnel; tenured teachers once a year, others more frequently	LEAs devise evaluation plan directed primarily at new teachers — peer review important — principal initiates	Evaluate all teacher once a year, non-tenured teachers more frequently
	Program to train administrators to evaluate personnel effectively	
LEAs develop recruiting and hiring procedures to ensure the best candidates are employed		

TRAINING AND CERTIFICATION OF ADMINISTRATORS

CURRENT	BAKALIS	BERMAN/MULCAHEY
Chicago principals need masters degree in any education field and must pass written and oral examinations		Specify role of principal as instructional leader
Certificates offered only by institutions selected and approved by the Illinois Board of Higher Education; exact course work determined by institutions		Require on-going professional development, perhaps through a Principals Leadership Academy; evaluate state's pilot program
Principals course work in broad areas: — Administration — Administration-related — Foundations (e.g. history) — Related disciplines (e.g. sociology, economics)	Illinois Educational Leadership Academy (includes teachers) University (includes teachers)	Fund Principals Academy at $200,000 level
Separate administrative certificates for: — General supervisors — Principals — School business official — Superintendents		Require administrative recertification every five years based on: — peer review — pupil performance — teacher input — continuing education — tests
Certificates renewed annually by paying registration fees		
		Make gender a protected classification under section 21-19
		Provide scholarships for graduate training of minorities and women in administration
One year old Principals Leadership Academy funded for $100,000		Fund 25 fully-paid internships for women and minorities
		Require additional course work in "instructional leadership" and "parent/school" relationships
		Require districts to have a plan to have administrators spend time in the classroom

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TRAINING AND CERTIFICATION OF ADMINISTRATORS

ILLINOIS STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION	CTU	GOVERNOR
Center attention on role of principal as instructional leader	Principals viewed as managers of resources, not instructional leader	View principal as instructional leader for education effectiveness
Require staff development for recertification; increase certification fees to pay for more continuing education	Require ongoing professional development	Provide administrative inservice training for supervisors, department chairs, mentor teachers, and principals
Increase funding of Principals Leadership Academy to $200,000; provide other inservice programs for principal		Increase funding of Principals Leadership Academy to $610,000
	Require written test for certifying new principals	
	Make gender a protected classification	
Provide programs to recruit minorities and women to administration		

SCHOOL/BUSINESS PARTNERSHIPS; ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

CURRENT	BAKALIS	BERMAN/MULCAHEY
ISBE funds "Education for Technology Employment" program for $1,000,000	Create Education/Business department within the ISBE — Business-created schools — Business-sponsored summer institutes — Business internships for teachers — Catalyst to address economic development and education	
Efforts are beginning to coordinate "education for employment" programs (career education, adult education, and vocational education) on a regional basis	Establish regional Education/Business councils in each ESR	
	Business Talent in Schools Program (allow business people to teach in schools)	
	Business participation in Merit School Program; Illinois Education Venture Capital Fund; and the Educational Privatization Project	

SCHOOL/BUSINESS PARTNERSHIPS; ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

ILLINOIS BOARD OF EDUCATION	CTU	GOVERNOR
	Business-sponsored school programs must support and enhance the established curriculum	
Education for employment plans should be coordinated on a regional basis		
Provide students with access to state-of-the-art equipment; develop linkages between business, industry, labor, and schools		Place voc-ed teachers in private sector jobs during summer months with fellowship assistance. Provide state matching funds for voc-ed equipment (90 % state, 10% private sector)
Develop special programs for teenage parents, unemployed youth		

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PUBLIC IMAGE/RELATIONS

CURRENT	BAKALIS	BERMAN/MULCAHEY
	ISBE plan statewide public relations campaign on "Everyone has a Stake in Public Education"	Publicity campaign to recruit talented teachers
	Parent/Student/Teacher contracts	Require additional course work in parent-school relationships for administrative certification
	Require LEAs to submit community outreach plans to ISBE	
	Require students to take one unit of community service	
	Have LEAs assign teachers to outreach programs	
	Statewide Educational Bank (5% of taxpayer's educational property tax set aside for their family's postsecondary education)	
	Publish achievement test results in community	Publish achievement test in results in community

PUBLIC IMAGE/RELATIONS

ILLINOIS BOARD OF EDUCATION	CTU	GOVERNOR
Information campaign to emphasize indispensable role of teachers		
	Parent or guardian must visit school at least once a year	
Publish achievement test results in community		Distribute "school report cards" to community